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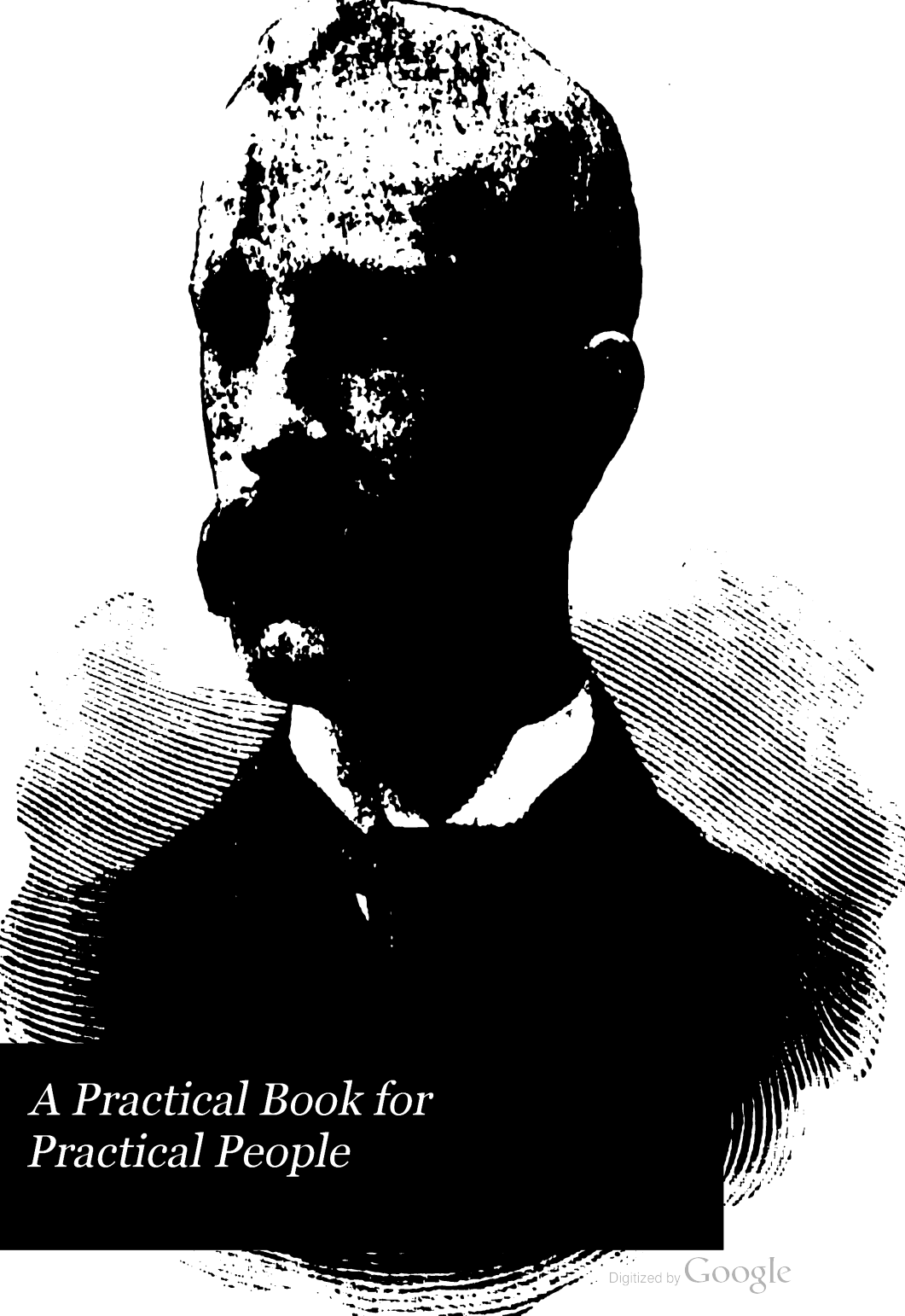
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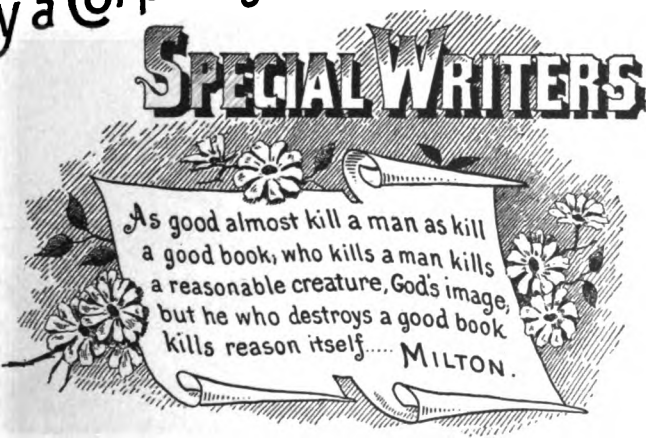
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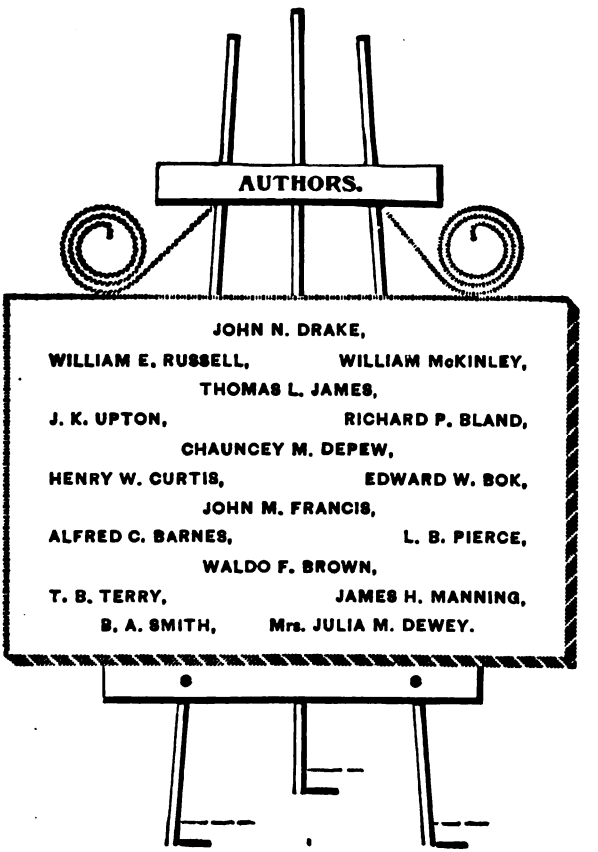


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PREFACE.

NEVER before in the history of our country have the plain, honest, practical people, the backbone of the nation, taken so much interest in the questions of the day.

The true, earnest citizen is not content to be a mere echo for his party leader, but is thinking for himself and acting in a manner that often bewilders and alarms the professional politician.

We believe that no other single volume presents an equal array of talent, such as distinguishes the well-known authors of the various subjects.

The man of affairs will find the questions of the times handled by acknowledged masters.

The business failures and riots fresh in our minds, show that these questions are not idle theories, but subjects demanding the careful thought and earnest attention of every true citizen.

Our friend, the farmer, will recognize in his department old friends, whose names are synonymous with the highest expert knowledge of the subjects with which they deal.

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It is believed that our business department will convey in the fewest words and the simplest language more "common law of common business" than any other work now before the public. Technical language has been avoided and the essential points of ordinary transactions fully illustrated and explained.

Recognizing in the ladies our best customers and most charitable critics, we have given special pains to the subjects in which they have a particular interest.

The change of public opinion, the sweeping away of old traditions, and the rapidity with which woman is widening her sphere, will render her department of this work of especial value to her.

We have striven to do our best, and believing that the practical people are quick to reward merit and to appreciate worth, we submit this volume for their approval and will abide by their decision.

THE PUBLISHERS.

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Engraved for Practical Book for Practical People.

John N. Gray.

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Our Tariff and Tariff Legislation.

By JOHN N. DRAKE.

SOME mode of taxation is the necessary expedient of all civilized governments to insure their maintenance, and the tariff, which is an indirect tax, is one of the oldest devices for the raising of revenue. The Athenians levied a two per cent duty on all exports and imports for public revenue, and in Rome a similar system prevailed. But in no country or nation has the tariff played so important and continuous a part as in the United States. It has engaged, not to say puzzled, the best minds of our public men, who in too many instances have allowed partisan zeal to stand in the way of a fair and just treatment of the subject. At the same time, due praise should be accorded to certain masters of statecraft, who have so shaped legislation during critical periods of our national history as to bring about the best possible results.

The genius of the American people is essentially commercial. This quality was manifested among the early colonists, who, in matters of trade, were so ruthlessly handicapped and intimidated by the Mother Country. It was not until after the Revolution, however, that the several States began to display an assertive commercial spirit. Though joined in con-

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federation they were disposed to be independent and to manage their affairs chiefly in their own interests. But international trade did not thrive, Congress was powerless to enforce any regulations respecting it, and American statesmen in those days were too conservative to attempt to negotiate any great number of reciprocity treaties. In fact at that period Congress was a sort of nondescript institution. The States themselves possessed the exclusive authority to levy taxes. Finally Massachusetts and several other States passed navigation acts and levied import duties.

In the meantime, the conflicting and more or less selfishly-guarded interests of the several States increased and served to prevent any successful action relating to the regulation of commerce by Congress, which was nominally vested with the power. The adoption of the Federal Constitution was doubtless hastened by this unhappy condition of affairs. The Virginia planters, who had become impoverished, were the first to start an agitation. They demanded some action looking to the improvement of trade. The merchants and tradespeople of that section warmly opposed this measure, because they were comparatively prosperous and wanted things to remain as they were. But just the opposite condition existed in Massachusetts and New York; there the farmers were in easy circumstances, while the merchants were suffering. So they took sides accordingly. As a result of this unrest a national trade

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convention was held in Annapolis in 1786, the outcome of which was the National Convention of 1787. The general trade depression of this time was attributable to the general poverty of the people, who were being victimized by the excessive issues of paper money. The industrial growth in New England was greatly retarded by the evils of mismanaged finances, and the manufacturing enterprises there substantially came to a standstill. At this critical juncture, when irremediable collapse threatened the nation, certain sagacious men perceived that in the extension of the powers of the Confederation lay the only adequate remedy. Financially the government could not have been in a much worse shape. It lacked resources and credit; its debts contracted by Congress were falling due. Through its representatives New York signified its willingness to allow Congress to levy a duty on imports.

In a lucid and able report to Congress Rufus King declared that "the impost was an absolute necessity to the maintenance of the faith of federal government."

The adoption of the Constitution gave the central government the power to levy taxes of every description and to regulate commerce with foreign governments. The only limitation imposed upon the exercise of the right to levy duties on imported commodities was that the duties should be uniform throughout the land. The question then was naturally suggested whether the government should

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levy taxes for any other purpose than raising revenue, which involved the other question whether Congress has the right to levy taxes to protect and encourage manufactures. In this connection Judge Story said: "Whichever construction of the power to levy taxes is adopted, the same conclusion is sustained, that the power to levy taxes is not by the Constitution confined to purposes of revenue. In point of fact it has never been limited to such purposes by Congress; and all the great functionaries of the government have constantly maintained the doctrine that it was not constitutionally so limited."

That there was sufficient warrant for investing Congress with the power to levy duties for other purposes than revenue is shown in the fact that at that time every civilized nation acted upon the principle that the power to regulate commerce included the right to encourage manufactures.

At the outset, then, it was recognized that a tariff was a measure not only for the purpose of raising revenue, but for encouraging domestic manufactures and regulating commerce. But since the adoption of the Constitution conditions have materially changed and likewise have altered opinions in regard to the taxing power of the government.

The first tariff act under our Federal Constitution was a simple measure as introduced in the first Congress by Mr. Madison, April 8, 1789. It provided for specific duties upon rum and other spirituous liquors, wines, teas, coffee, sugar, molasses and pep-

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per, and for *ad valorem* duties upon all other articles. The debate which followed the introduction of this resolution opened the flood-gates of the great controversy, which has continued down to the present day, as to whether the tariff should be protective in effect or for revenue only. Practically, the act of 1789 was to raise revenue; incidentally, its aim was to protect domestic manufactures. It was the outcome of necessity. The outbreak known as Shay's rebellion had evidenced how bitterly opposed were the people to the excise tax. The customs duties seemed to afford the most feasible and sensible means of indirect taxation and for the next quarter of a century they were gradually increased in number and amount. In the preamble of the initial tariff law reported by James Madison it was stated that one of the objects sought was "the encouragement and protection of manufactures." It certainly was modest enough in its provisions, according to modern protection notions. It did not satisfy the needs of the hour, at least it did not effect a harmonious arrangement between the many conflicting interests then existent. But nearly all political economists agree that it was a step in the right direction.

The Madison tariff was based on a five per cent duty for revenue, but *ad valorem* duties as high as fifteen per cent were fixed upon carriages. The average duty levied was equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of eight and one-half per cent, which was considered too high by many, who prophesied that it

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would encourage smuggling. On glass, iron manufactures, hemp, cordage, etc., were placed specific duties — and obviously with a protective object. However, it may as well be admitted, that Mr. Madison was a free trader at heart. His public utterances and correspondence fairly bristle with evidences that he accepted the principles of free trade as gospel but, as one able authority on the tariff has pointed out, he admitted that those principles were not applicable to articles needed in time of war and in circumstances to which the young-industries argument was germane.

Almost as a unit, the Southern States opposed any scheme of protection, while Pennsylvania demanded it on account of her iron and steel industries. Massachusetts made rum and wanted a high duty upon it, but of course she did not want any duty upon molasses. It was soon discovered that the Madison tariff was defective in that it did not afford protection to all activities alike. One section was benefited by it almost invariably at the expense of another section. It went into effect July 4, 1789, and was to remain in force until June, 1796. This act, the foundation of the American tariff system, imposed the following duties: Distilled spirits of Jamaica, proof, 10 cents per gallon; other distilled spirits, 8 cents; molasses, 2½ cents; Madeira wine, 18 cents; other wines, 10 cents; beer, ale and porter, in casks, 5 cents per gallon; in bottles, 20 cents per dozen; bottled cider, the same; malt, 10 cents per bushel;

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brown sugar, 1 cent per pound; loaf sugar, 3 cents; other sugars, 2½ cents; coffee, 2½ cents; cocoa, 1 cent; teas, from China and India, in American vessels, ranged from 6 to 20 cents per pound, and in foreign vessels somewhat higher; candles from 2 to 6 cents per pound; cheese, 4 cents; soap, 2 cents; boots, 50 cents per pair; shoes, from 7 to 10 cents, according to quality of material; cables and tarred cordage, 75 cents per cwt.; untarred cordage, 90 cents; twine and pack thread, $2; unwrought steel, 50 cents per cwt.; rails and spikes, 1 cent per pound; salt, 6 cents per bushel; manufactured tobacco, 6 cents per pound; indigo, 16 cents per pound; wool and cotton cards, 50 cents per dozen; coal, 2 cents per bushel; pickled fish, 75 cents per barrel; dried fish, 50 cents per quintal; playing cards, 10 cents per pack; hemp, 60 cents per cwt.; cotton, 3 cents per pound. In addition to these specific duties an *ad valorem* duty of ten per cent was levied on glass of all kinds (black quart bottles excepted) china, stone and earthenware, gun powder, paints, shoe and knee buckles, and gold and silver lace and leaf; seven and one-half per cent *ad valorem* was charged upon blank books, paper, cabinet wares, leather, ready-made clothing, hats, gloves, millinery, canes, brushes, gold and silver and plated ware and jewelry, buttons, saddles, slit and rolled iron, and castings of iron, anchors, tin and pewter ware. Upon all other articles, including manufactures of wool, cotton and linen, five per cent *ad valorem* was to be charged, except saltpetre, tin, lead, old pewter, brass,

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iron and brass wire, copper, in plates, wool-dye stuffs, hides and furs, which were to be free of duty.

The first act of the First Congress was a merely formal one, regulating the form of the oath to be taken by officials. This was followed by the act establishing a protective tariff, which, on July 4, 1789, was passed and signed by George Washington.

Such men as Charles Carroll, Rufus King, Fisher Ames, Oliver Ellsworth, Roger Sherman and J. Trumbull shared in the discussion. This First Congress was largely composed of farmers, but they were not purblind to the necessity of encouraging home industries; for it was obvious to them that to secure absolute national independence, domestic manufactures must be protected. While this law remained on our statute book, five Presidents found occasion to commend, in no vague terms, its beneficent results.

In his first annual message George Washington declared that our safety and interest as a free people required the promotion of such manufactures "as tend to render them independent of others for essentials, particularly military supplies." On the 15th of January, 1790, the House of Representatives, in response to the recommendations in the message, passed an order: "That it be referred to the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare and report to the house the proper plan or plans, conformably to the recommendation of the President of the United States in his speech to both houses of Congress, for

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the encouragement and promotion of such manufactures as will tend to render the United States independent of other nations for essential, particularly for military, supplies."

In December, 1791, upon the opening of the second session of the Second Congress, the Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, submitted his report, which for beauty of diction, scope and clearness of argument and plenitude of forceful illustration has never been excelled by any government document ever produced in this country, if in the world.

Greeted everywhere with enthusiastic approval, it served for almost half a century as the basis of the best legislation respecting the tariff. The principal circumstances contributive to the augmented produce and revenue of a nation through manufacturing establishments were enumerated by Mr. Hamilton as follows:

1. The division of labor.
2. An extension of the use of machinery.
3. Additional employment to classes of the community not ordinarily engaged in business.
4. The promoting of emigration from foreign countries.
5. The furnishing greater scope for the diversity of talents and dispositions which discriminates men from each other.
6. The affording of a more ample and various field for enterprise.

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7. The creating, in some instances, a new, and securing, in all, a more certain and steady demand for the surplus produce of the soil.

Referring to our economical system, in his last annual message, John Adams, our second President, said: "I observe, with much satisfaction, that the product of the revenue during the present year has been more considerable than during any former period. This result affords conclusive evidence of the great resources of the country, and of the wisdom and efficiency of the measures which have been adopted by Congress, for the protection of commerce and preservation of the public credit."

In various messages Jefferson referred to the manifold advantages arising from a protective tariff. In 1807 he offered suggestions as to the best method of disposing of the surplus that then seemed likely to be left after paying all the public debt called for by our contracts. A little later his convictions were stated in these words: "The general inquiry now is, shall we make our own comforts, or go without them at the will of a foreign nation? He, therefore, who is now against domestic manufactures, must be for reducing us either to a dependence upon that nation, or to be clothed in skins and live like beasts in caves and dens. I am proud to say I am not one of these. Experience has taught me that manufactures are now as necessary to our independence as to our comforts. The prohibiting duties we lay on all articles of foreign manufacture, which prudence requires us to estab-

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lish at home, with the patriotic determination of every good citizen to use no foreign article which can be made within ourselves, without regard to difference of price, secures us against a relapse in foreign dependency."

Madison and Monroe were equally zealous in the advocacy of protective measures. The former, often called "the father of the Constitution," considerably relaxed his conservatism respecting the tariff which at its inception was more or less tentative. Suffice it to say, Madison's public life and deeds place him in the front rank of the adherents of protection.

Between the passage of the first tariff act and the beginning of the war of 1812, twelve additional acts were passed, but the changes in the law were immaterial, a gradual increase in the rates of duty being their most notable feature. During this period there was no sharp division of party lines on the tariff, nor was it made manifest until after the close of the war of 1812. Our people had little cause for internal wrangling in these years. The Tariff of 1789 quickened industry and trade in every populated part of the Union; agriculture thrived as it had never done before on this hemisphere; the expenses of the government were met by our rapidly-increasing revenue; our merchant-navy was revived and the interests of ship-building multiplied.

The war between Great Britain and France greatly retarded our international trade and led to complications which both harmed and helped us. The Old

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World was inflamed by the example of our people in achieving their independence. "The only neutral commercial nation, we became the carriers on the ocean of the belligerents, and fed their armies with the products of our agriculture. As their necessities knew no bounds, our means and industries were wholly absorbed in ministering to them. It was our golden age." But jealousy, both in England and France, was excited by the spectacle of our prosperity. They prohibited all commerce with the other, established blockades, and authorized the seizure and search of neutral vessels wherever found on the main. Accordingly our vessels were rigorously treated by their captors and our flag insulted. As a measure of retaliation against these outrages and invasions against our rights on the high seas, Congress, at the suggestion of President Jefferson, passed the so-called Embargo Act in 1808, which was in no true sense of the term a tariff act, as has been frequently asserted by free-trade writers. By reason of this act "we practically withdrew from the ocean" But the expedient scarcely succeeded in the manner desired by its promoters, as, at the time, our home productions were somewhat limited, and within a year, through Mr. Jefferson's influence, the Embargo Act was repealed. But its brief existence "gave a great stimulus to the establishment of new industries and manufactures for making those articles which formerly were imported, but which under that prohibition had to be made here or not at all." In 1808

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we passed the Act of Non-intercourse; and finally declared war in 1812 against England, being unable longer to endure her meddlesome tyranny.

Nothing could better illustrate the national vigor and endurance of the American people than this terrible three years' war with England. In order to carry it on we doubled the tariff duties, which proved the salvation of our home industries. Our importations being enormously diminished, our only recourse to supply ourselves with necessities was to erect factories and foundries of our own. In spite of the tremendous drain upon our finances and credit entailed by this war, our manufactures flourished from very necessity. But the country in general was in a sorry plight at the termination of hostilities in 1815. Our shipping interests had become wholly demoralized. To render matters still worse, England glutted our markets with vast quantities of merchandise, for which we had nothing to pay.

From all sides arose the clamor for tariff legislation. In obedience thereto the famous Tariff Act of 1816 was passed. It comprehended the repeal of the law of 1789 and the amendment of 1812 and substituted lower duties. While nominally presented by Mr. Lowndes, member of Congress from South Carolina, and chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means of the House, "the burden of its support was assumed by Mr. John C. Calhoun, then a member of the House, who, next to Mr. Clay, was the most commanding and influential figure in it."

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The practical object of this act was to raise a barrier against the tremendous torrent of English goods which were being dumped upon our shores and offered to our consumers far below cost. Though no sectional or local issues were raised during the discussion of the bill, many Northern members voted against it "on the ground that the interests of their constituents were not properly considered." Yet all agreed that protection was the end and revenue the incident of the measure, which was the second important step in the legislation of this country. But it may as well be said at once that the Tariff Act of 1816 was not only ineffectual but futile. To quote from a high authority: "The duties it imposed averaged about sixteen per cent *ad valorem*, which was thought to be sufficient, because the authors of the measure had no conception of the altered conditions of production and exchange."

Mr. Calhoun stated in his speech that the capital formerly employed in commerce had been diverted to manufactures. "This," he said, "if things continue as they are, will be their direction. It will introduce a new era in our affairs, in many respects highly advantageous, and ought to be countenanced by the government." Other similar assertions, coming as they did from a Southern man, were very significant, for at that time the South favored protection, while many parts of the North opposed it. Mr. Webster always referred to the Tariff of 1816 as a South Carolina measure.

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The tendency was to adopt specific duties. The minimum principle was also introduced — goods valued below a fixed price paid the same rate of duty as the minimum figure. As has been urged, the new tariff was not effective as a protective measure; for while enormous importations filled the public treasury, the markets of the country, still prostrated from the effects of the war, became unsettled. Speculation speedily assumed the semblance of a mania, and this, coupled with the inflation of paper currency, only served to darken the situation. The increased competition resulting from the new tariff still further depressed and crippled our home markets. New England capital had been largely invested in manufacturing, and, as this did not thrive, that section soon emphatically demanded more protection and at the same time bitterly denounced British manufacturers, who, it was maintained, were leagued against American industry. In this connection it may be instructive to read a single paragraph from Niles' History: "It is notorious that great sums of money were expended by the British to destroy our flocks of sheep that they might thereby ruin our manufactures. They bought up and immediately slaughtered great numbers of sheep; they bought our best machinery and sent it off to England, and hired our best mechanics and most skilful workmen to go to England, simply to get them out of this country, and so hinder and destroy our existing and prospective manufactures."

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Our national existence was threatened. Those whom ruin and bankruptcy did not claim for their own were none the less alarmed. An organized movement was soon inaugurated in favor of higher duties. Societies for the promotion of domestic industry were formed in several States; conventions were held and forcible addresses issued to the people, in which British greed and meanness were unsparingly censured. In 1817 the leading New York merchants united in a memorial to Congress to save our commerce, as well as our manufactures, from utter collapse, by increasing the tariff duties.

An amendatory act was passed in 1818, whose purpose was to postpone the reduction until 1826 of the duty on certain articles named in the act of 1816. Continued agitation resulted in an attempt to pass a high tariff measure in 1820. There was also an effort to abolish the credit system, which then applied to imports and was the forerunner of the modern warehouse system.

The protection sentiment had waxed so strong that had the condition of the treasury warranted it a tariff measure doubtless would have been enacted to prohibit the importation of iron, cottons and woollens. As it was, the only thing that could be done was to raise the rates on these articles, principally in retaliation. England imposed high duties on wools and France taxed American cotton highly. American wheat also, an important article of export, was subject to high duties by European nations. In short,

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for a number of years after the act of 1816 no material change for the better occurred in our distressed and impoverished land.

The Tariff Act of 1824.

With the passage of the Tariff Act of 1824 began the real system of protection in the United States. It proved a relief measure of widespread importance and benefit to all classes of our population. Though reported on the 9th of January, by Mr. Tod of Pennsylvania, in behalf of the committee of the House on manufactures, as a bill for the amendment of the act in 1836, by adding largely upon certain articles to the duties provided by that act, the great champion of this new measure was Mr. Clay, who is frequently designated as the sponsor of the so-called "American system." Few measures have ever attracted so absorbed an interest in Congress as did this one. Speaking in its behalf, Mr. Clay said: "The principle of the system under consideration has the sanction of some of the best and wisest men in all ages, in foreign countries as well as our own, of the Edwards, of Henry the Great, of Elizabeth, of the Colberts abroad; of our Franklin, Jefferson, Madison, Hamilton at home. But it comes recommended to us by higher authority than any of these, illustrious as they unquestionably are, by the master spirit of the age, that extraordinary man who has thrown the Alexanders and the Cæsars infinitely further behind him

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than they stood in advance of their most eminent predecessors, that singular man, who, whether he was seated on his imperial throne deciding the fate of nations and allotting kingdoms to the members of his family with the same composure, if not with the affection as that with which a Virginia father divides his plantations among his children, or on the miserable rock of St. Helena, to which he was condemned by the cruelty and injustice of his unworthy victors, is equally an object of the most intense admiration — Napoleon Bonaparte. He opposed the principles of economists, which he said were correct in theory, though erroneous in application. 'Duties,' he said, 'which were so condemned by political economists should not, it is true, be an object to the treasury; they should be a guarantee and protection to the nation,' and should correspond with the nature and objects of its trade. I have not fallen into the error of modern sympathizers, who imagine that all the wisdom of nations is centered in themselves. Experience is the true wisdom of nations. And what does all the reasoning of economists amount to? They incessantly extol the prosperity of England, and hold her up as our model; but the custom house system is more burdensome and arbitrary in England than in any other country. In France we are still very far behind on these delicate points, which are still unperceived or ill-understood by the mass of society.'"

To which the sagacious Mr. Webster, always on the alert to heap sarcasm on any logical lapses or

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inadvertences on the part of an adversary, replied in his grand manner:

"Indeed, sir, it is a little astonishing, if it seemed convenient to Mr. Speaker (Mr. Clay), for the purpose of distinction, to make use of the terms 'American policy' and 'foreign policy,' that he should not have applied them in a manner precisely the reverse of that in which he has in fact used them. If names are thought necessary it would be well enough, one would think, that the name should be in some manner descriptive of the thing; and since Mr. Speaker denominates the policy which he recommends 'a new policy in this country;' since he speaks of the present measure as a new era in our legislation; since he proposes to invite us to depart from our accustomed course, to instruct ourselves by the wisdom of others, and to adopt the policy of the most distinguished foreign States, one is a little curious to know with what propriety of speech this imitation is denominated an 'American policy,' while on the contrary, a preference for our own established system, as it now actually exists and always existed, is called a 'foreign policy.' This favorite American policy is what America has never tried, and this odious foreign policy is what, as we are told, foreign States have never pursued."

Mr. Clay's "American system" had for its essential idea the imposition of high duties on manufactures in order to furnish a home market for our surplus farm products. Mr. Webster led the mem-

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bers from the shipping States in a most determined opposition to this measure, protesting that it did not sufficiently recognize the claims of such interests. The bill was violently opposed by one of the ablest debaters of his time, John Randolph, who, in the course of a speech, said, after picturing the great advantages of Great Britain in manufacturing: "It is in such a climate only that the human animal can bear, without extirpation, the corrupted air, the noisome exhalation, the incessant labor of these accursed manufactories. Yes, sir, accursed; for I say it is an accursed thing. We should have the yellow fever from June to January, and January to June. The climate of this country alone, were there no other natural obstacles to it, says aloud,—you shall not manufacture."

Among the prominent supporters of this bill were Colonel Benton, General Andrew Jackson, then Senator from Tennessee, Martin Van Buren, then Senator from New York, Richard M. Johnson, then a Senator from Kentucky, afterward Vice-President of the United States, Louis McLane, then a Representative from Delaware, and afterward a member of General Jackson's Cabinet, General Sam. Houston, then a Representative from Tennessee, and afterward Senator from Texas, and Mr. Crawford of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury under Mr. Monroe, and along with three other gentlemen, a candidate for the presidency in that year (1824). The contest over this Tariff law in Congress lasted more than ten weeks, and the bill,

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which imposed an average rate of duty of about twenty per cent, was finally passed May 22d by a majority of only five in the House and four in the Senate. Both John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay voted for it.

The prospects of a home market most strongly appealed to the leading agricultural States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Kentucky, by whose united votes the bill was carried. New England was divided, Connecticut and Rhode Island voting for it. On account of their cotton industries these two States had been drifting protectionward for a number of years. It was not until about 1830 that Massachusetts fell in line as a protection State. The Tariff of 1824 put on wool, hemp, coarse cotton fabrics, iron and lead increased duties, and these were deemed injurious to New England interests. In consequence, Massachusetts and the other New England States, except Rhode Island and Connecticut, vigorously opposed it.

The Southern leaders almost unanimously had done yeoman service to bring the Tariff Act of 1816 into existence. But shortly afterward the South began to doubt the merits of protection as applied to itself, and fiercely opposed the bill of 1820. It had become evident to them that slavery and manufactures could not prosper together in the South. And there was no question as to which road they must travel. So the Tariff Bill of 1824 was opposed by the solid South, but, as we have seen, it went into effect.

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Under this act trade generally expanded, the demand for labor was greatly enhanced, and nearly everybody, except the woollen manufacturers, was happy and contented. In the United States Senate, several years later, Henry Clay said: "If the term of seven years were to be selected of the greatest prosperity which this people has enjoyed since the establishment of their present Constitution, it would be exactly that period of seven years which immediately followed the passage of the Tariff of 1824."

The minimum system regulating cotton goods during this period had made their manufacture a very lucrative pursuit. This was not true of the woollen industry, which had not been encouraged by either the acts of 1816 or of 1824. The woollen makers of Massachusetts were not slow to perceive that they needed legislation, and in the Congressional session of 1828 a new tariff bill was reported by the Committee of Manufactures of the House. The woollen makers were not the only parties interested in higher protective duties, but the chief object of the bill as drafted was to provide a largely-increased protection to the manufacture of wool, an industry sadly suffering from English competition. The opposition to this tariff was bitterly manifested at the South, where secession had already been openly suggested and discussed as the only means of immunity from unjust national legislation. Southern members demanded, through the Committee of Ways and Means, an utter and absolute abandonment of the

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protective system, declaring that "Congress should adopt no half-way measures, no temporary expedients, but reform it altogether."

The act of 1828, supplementing that of 1824, was passed and provided that:

"On manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be a component part (except carpetings, blankets, worsted stuff goods, bombazines, hosiery, mitts, gloves, caps and bindings), the actual value of which, at the place whence imported, shall not exceed fifty cents per square yard, shall be deemed to have cost fifty cents the square yard, and be charged thereon with a duty of forty per centum *ad valorem*, until June 30, 1832, and from that time a duty of forty-five per centum.

"Manufactures of wool, except flannels and baizes, the actual value of, etc., shall not exceed thirty-three and one-third cents per square yard, pay fourteen cents per square yard.

"Manufactures of wool, etc., actual value exceeding fifty cents per square yard, not exceeding $1 the square yard, shall be deemed to have cost $1 the square yard, and be charged thereon with a duty of forty per centum *ad valorem* to June 30, 1829, and from that time a duty of forty-five per centum *ad valorem*.

"Manufactures of wool, etc., value exceeding $1, not $2.50 per yard, shall be deemed to have cost $2.50 per square yard, and be charged with a duty thereon of forty per centum to June 30, 1829, and from that time a duty of forty-five per centum.

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"Manufactures of wool, etc., exceeding $2.50, not $4 per square yard, shall be deemed to have cost at the place whence imported $4 per square yard, and a duty of forty per centum shall be levied, etc., until June 30, 1829, and from that time a duty of forty-five per centum.

"Manufactures of wool, etc., the actual value of which, etc., shall exced $4 per yard, a duty of forty-five per centum *ad valorem* until June 30, 1829, and from that time a duty of fifty per centum."*

Previous to the passage of the Tariff Act of 1828 "politics" of a singularly practical kind had begun to creep into legislative affairs. In 1827 the woollens bill had been defeated, but the protection advocates were not discouraged. On the contrary, they resolved to keep up the struggle and to include in the scheme of higher duties those which agriculturalists and manufacturers might be persuaded would benefit them. To that end the Harrisburg convention was held in the midsummer of 1827, and here partisan feeling was plainly in evidence. As yet public opinion had not been divided on party lines between protection and free trade, but almost as by magic two political parties had sprung into existence. One was the Adams party, soon afterward to be known as the Whigs, and the other was the Jackson party, soon afterward to be known as the Democrats. The Adams men were avowedly protectionists, but the attitude of the Jackson contingent, on this as on

* *Customs — Tariff Legislation*, 38, 39.

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some other public issues, cannot be so easily defined. Considerable divergence of opinion prevailed among the Jackson men, as, for instance, on the bank question, and internal improvements. New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio were protection States whose votes were necessary to elect Jackson. Some bait must be held out to capture the vote of these three great States, something done to satisfy them that he was a true friend of home industry. But he stood between two fires, for the Southern members, who, with scarcely an exception, were his ardent supporters, unequivocally opposed higher duties, and, furthermore, demanded that the tariff then in operation imposed unjust taxes on the slave States.

Fortune, however, favored Jackson. His military renown was the pride of the Southern people, and in the twentieth Congress it was discovered that his star was in the ascendency. A policy of obstruction was begun in order to delay the Tariff report by the Committee on Manufactures, five of whom were supporters of Jackson, and two of Adams. But this program could not be carried out, as the Jackson men, both South and North, irrespective of their differences on the Tariff question, united to secure the passage of the resolution requested by the committee to examine witnesses, with a view to gaining information respecting the state of the woollen manufacture.

Finally the bill was reported to the House on January 31st. Henry Clay, four years afterward, inti-

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mated that this bill "*was so* framed on the advice of a prominent citizen, now abroad (Martin Van Buren, who had been made Minister to England in 1831), with a view of ultimately defeating the bill, and with assurances that being altogether unacceptable to the friends of the American system, the bill would be lost." Its passage at all events surprised its authors, according to Prof. Taussig, than whom no one man knows more concerning the Tariff history of the United States. Its shrewd and ingenious details, which are too numerous to go into here, were the work of politicians whose obvious purpose was to bolster up Jackson's chances in the approaching campaign and election.

The Tariff Act of 1828 was unsatisfactory to everyone save a few extremists, and it has been handed down in history as the *Abominations Tariff*. Daniel Webster, to whom hitherto high protective duties had seemed dangerous, at least to the New England community, felt obliged to swallow the bitterest pill of all, because of "paramount considerations"—which, translated into less lofty language, meant "politics."

General Jackson was elected to the Presidency in 1828, as had been generally expected. Both he and his opponent, Mr. Adams, ran as Republicans, both as high protective advocates, both as champions of internal improvements, etc. In his inaugural address General Jackson committed himself to the doctrine of State Sovereignty in words that cannot be mis-

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taken. He said: "In such measures as I may be called on to pursue in regard to the rights of the separate States, I hope to be animated by a proper respect for those *Sovereign* members of the Union; taking care not to confound the powers they have reserved to themselves with those they have granted to the Confederacy."

Three States already, in one way and another, had given voice to the dogma of State's rights, and denied the authority of the Federal government: Virginia, in the resolutions of 1798; Georgia, through Governor Troup to the Legislature of that State, in 1825, and South Carolina, in a series of resolutions passed in the same year, of which the following is a sample: "*Resolved*, That it is an unconstitutional exercise of power on the part of Congress to lay duties to protect domestic manufactures."*

Again in 1827, by a vote of her Legislature, the State of Georgia supported the opinions expressed by Governor Troup two years before, substantially to the effect that it was contrary to the letter and spirit of the Federal Constitution for Congress to adopt and prosecute a policy "obviously grinding down the resources of one class of States to build up and advance the prosperity of another of the same confederacy," which, be it said, was in itself a just enough proposition. Again in the same year, South Carolina passed another set of protests declaring "that Congress has no power to construct

* Niles' Register, 29, 293.

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roads and canals in the States, for the purpose of internal improvements, with or without the assent of the States in whose limits those internal improvements are made, the authority of Congress extending no farther than to pass the '*necessary* and *proper* laws' to carry into execution their enumerated powers."

In a preceding paragraph it was *resolved*, "that the acts of Congress known by the name of the tariff laws, the object of which is not the raising of revenue or the regulation of foreign commerce, but the promotion of domestic manufactures, are violations of the Constitution in its spirit, and ought to be repealed."

Still smarting under her grievance, South Carolina, through her Legislature, on December 19, 1828, after the Tariff Act of that year had been passed, and after General Jackson's election to the Presidency, adopted an elaborate series of protests against the system of protective duties as unconstitutional, oppressive and unjust. On the 12th of January, 1829, the State of Georgia protested against the Tariff Act of 1828, characterizing it as deceptive in its title, as not having accomplished an "alteration of the several acts imposing duties on imports, fraudulent in its pretexts, oppressive in its exactions, partial and unjust in its operations, etc., to secure a hateful monopoly to a combination of unfortunate manufacturers."

In the following December Georgia passed resolutions concurring with those adopted by the South

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Carolina Legislature in their December session in 1827, in relation to the powers of the general government and State rights.

The controversy over the public lands served to widen the breach that had been opened by the tariff bugbear between the South and North, and for the first time, perhaps, the germinating seed of secession was planted in the hearts and minds of the Southern people. Their three great staples for export — cotton, tobacco and rice — "could be exchanged for foreign products only upon the payment of heavy custom duties." Retired from the confederacy, at least sundered from the plutocracy "of the North, they could bask in the sunshine of peace and plenty."

Mr. Henry V. Poor, the eminent writer on finance, has said that "from 1828, no power could for a moment withstand the tendency which, so far as the Southern States were concerned, could have no other end but the overthrow of the government of the United States. General Jackson himself was the Phaeton that drove the steeds. He had that singular mixture of cunning, audacity and apparent frankness always most effective to catch the popular ear, to which he added boundless professions of consideration for the welfare of the poor, whose passions he raised to the highest pitch by describing the wrongs they suffered from paper money and manufacturing aristocrats. The only appeal at the time open to the North was to the *ultima ratio*, which,

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though long delayed, in the end rendered full justice to her cause.

General Jackson spoke vaguely of the tariff in his first annual address, November 8, 1829, but was less uncertain regarding his pet scheme of crushing the Bank of the United States by discontinuing its charter, which still had about eight years to run. His chief argument was to the effect that this institution was unconstitutional, and it may be added here that eventually he accomplished his intention to destroy the bank.

The tariff was again "tinkered with" in 1832. Several bills were introduced, among them one by John Quincy Adams, chairman of the Committee of the House, on Manufactures. But a bill submitted by Mr. McLane, Secretary of the Treasury, after various modifications, finally passed. The minimum system was entirely abolished. An *ad valorem* duty of fifty per cent was put on woollen goods. The duty on hemp was reduced to $40 a ton; flax was placed on the free list. Wool under eight cents a pound was admitted free of duty. It was, taken all in all, a protective act, and bore striking similarities to the act of 1824. Modified as it was from the *Abominations Act* of 1828, the Tariff of 1832 was not free from the fierce strictures of the South, though more than twenty members of the House, representing Southern States, voted in favor of it. Before the time arrived for it to take effect, which was to be after March 1, 1833, a general convention was held

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in South Carolina, whose delegates adopted an ordinance "to nullify certain acts of the Congress of the United States, purporting to be laws laying duties and imposts on the importation of foreign commodities." It is a curious document in this dawn of the twentieth century, to read and ponder over. In stately and august phraseology it repudiated the Tariff Acts of 1828 and 1832, declaring them unauthorized by the Constitution of the United States, and null, void and no law, nor binding upon that State, its officers or citizens.

In conclusion it went on to say:

And we, the people of South Carolina, to the end that it may be fully understood by the Government of the United States, and the people of the co-States, that we are determined to maintain this, our ordinance and declaration, at every hazard, do further declare that we will not submit to the application of force, on the part of the Federal Government, to reduce this State to obedience; but that we will consider the passage by Congress of any act authorizing the employment of a military or naval force against the State of South Carolina, her constituted authorities or citizens; or any act abolishing or closing the ports of this State, or any of them, or otherwise obstructing the free ingress and egress of vessels to and from the said ports; or any other acts on the part of the Federal Government, to coerce the State, shut up her ports, destroy or harass her commerce, or to enforce the acts hereby declared null and void, other-

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wise than through the civil tribunals of the country, as inconsistent with the longer continuance of South Carolina in the Union; and that the people of this State will henceforth hold themselves absolved from all further obligation to maintain or preserve their political connection with the people of the other States, and will forthwith proceed to organize a separate Government, and do all other acts and things which sovereign and independent States may of right do."

From all accounts this impetuous little commonwealth meant business too. She had already been making extensive preparations to back up what she said by force of arms. Though she had taken this bold initiative, South Carolina doubtless felt assured that at least some of her neighbors would follow suit in seceding, so she played her little game of brag and bluff with amusing, if it had not been pathetic, impunity. Her favorite historian, William Gilmore Simms, has said that "a call was made for volunteers, even out of the limits of the State. It was understood that more than fifty thousand men had volunteered to maintain South Carolina."

This *ultimatum*, issued November 24, 1832, provided that from and after the 1st day of February, 1833, the Tariff Acts of May 19, 1828, and of July 14, 1832, should not be enforced within the limits of South Carolina. In the meantime, Mr. Clay had been overwhelmingly defeated by General Jackson for the Presidency, and he saw with keen humiliation

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that his great ambition to create a permanent protective system must be sacrificed. The ominous demands of the "solid South" could not be ignored without exciting a civil war. Jackson, realizing the exigencies of the situation, made an executive feint of defending the inviolability of the Federal Government. He issued a grandiloquent proclamation, urging the recalcitrant States to behave like gentlemen and stand by the Constitution and the supreme law of the land, which elicited such violent denunciation from the South, that within a year he authorized the publication of *his* construction of the Constitution, in his personal organ, the *Washington Globe*, in which his views were constantly modified to suit Southern sentiment.

Thus the die was cast. On the 25th of February Mr. Clay's *Compromise Bill* was substituted for a previous bill that had been introduced in the House. Speaking in favor of his bill Mr. Clay thus defined his position: "I have been represented as the father of this system, and I am charged with an unnatural abandonment of my own offspring. I have never arrogated to myself any such intimate relation to it. I have, indeed, cherished it with parental fondness, and my affection is undiminished. But in what condition do I find this child? It is in the hands of the Philistines, who would strangle it. I fly to its rescue, to snatch it from their custody, and to place it on a bed of security and repose for nine years, where it may grow and strengthen, and become accept-

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able to the whole people. I behold a torch about to be applied to a favorite edifice, and I would save it, if possible, before it was wrapped in flames, or at least preserve the precious furniture which it contains."

Naturally the people of South Carolina were jubilant over the fact that they had actually succeeded in bulldozing the United States. Assembling for the purpose of considering what action to take with reference to the Compromise Act, the committee of the South Carolina convention reported among other things that :

"We cannot be insensible to the benefits to be derived from the united efforts of the whole South, aided by other States having interests identified with our own, in bringing about the late adjustment of the tariff ; promising, we trust, for the future, that union of sentiment and conceit in action which are necessary to secure the rights and interests of the Southern States. On the whole, in whatever aspect the question is contemplated, your committee find, in the late modification of the tariff, cause for congratulation and triumph. If we have not yet succeeded in the complete establishment of the great principles of free trade and constitutional liberty, such progress has been made toward the accomplishment of the former as must serve to rekindle our hopes, and to excite us to fresh exertion in the glorious work of reforms in which we are engaged."

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Then the convention submitted and adopted the following condescending ordinance:

"*Whereas*, The Congress of the United States, by an act recently passed, has made such a reduction and modification of the duties of foreign imports as amounted substantially to an ultimate reduction of the duties to the *revenue* standard; and that no higher duties shall be laid than may be necessary to defray the economical expenditures of the government;

"*It is, therefore, ordained and declared*, That the ordinance entitled 'an ordinance to nullify certain acts of the Congress of the United States,' *purporting* to be laws laying duties on the importation of foreign commodities and all acts passed in pursuance thereof, be henceforth deemed and held to have no force or effect, provided that the act entitled 'an act further to alter and amend the militia laws of this State,' passed on the 20th day of December, 1832, shall remain in full force."

The Compromise Tariff Act, which remained in force for about nine years, provided for a sliding scale, that is to say, all twenty per centum duties scheduled in the bill of 1832 were to be gradually reduced on each alternate year till 1842, when and thereafter twenty per centum on the home valuation should be the rate on all these goods. It was, perhaps, a wiser political than economic or financial measure, for it failed to meet pressing requirements, and was so drafted that *ad valorem* duties were in-

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cluded. It came to be known generally as the "horizontal tariff." Prof. Taussig says there can be little doubt that that act "was the result of an agreement between Clay and Calhoun, the leaders of the protectionists and free traders, while it secured also the support of Jackson." This statement is strengthened by the fact that the South Carolina nullifiers had declared that such a horizontal rate was the least they were willing to accept.

As finally passed, Mr. Clay's bill provided that:

"From and after the 31st of December, 1833, in all cases where the duties are imposed on foreign imports by the act of 14th July, 1832, or by any other act which shall exceed twenty per cent on the value thereof, one-tenth part of such excess shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1835, 1837 and 1839, respectively, a further deduction of one-tenth of such excess shall be made; and from and after the 31st of December, 1841, a further reduction of one-half of the remainder of such excess; and from and after the 31st of December, 1842, the residue of such excess shall be deducted. So much of the second section of the act of the 14th of July, aforesaid, as fixes the rate of duty on all milled and fulled cloth known by the name of plains, kerseys or Kendall cottons, of which wool is the only material, the value whereof does not exceed thirty-five cents a square yard, at five per cent *ad valorem*, is repealed. And said articles are subjected to the same duty as is provided for other manufactures of wool, viz., fifty

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per cent *ad valorem*, and this duty is liable to the deductions mentioned above.

"From and after the 31st of December, 1842, all duties upon imports shall be collected in ready money, and all credit abolished. Said duties to be assessed upon the value of said goods at the port where the same shall be entered."

At this point, we might profitably digress for a moment to bring to the readers' attention how indefinite had been party names up to this time. The first two Presidents of the United States were commonly known as Federalists. Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe and John Quincy Adams called themselves Republicans. By usage, writers have designated Andrew Jackson a Democrat. But certain it is, he ran both times for the Presidency as a Republican, or to speak literally, as a Jacksonian; his opponents called themselves anti-Jacksonians. In 1832 Martin Van Buren ran on the Jackson ticket for Vice-President and was elected, and it was reserved for Mr. Van Buren to draw a party line between Republicanism and Democracy. For reasons of his own, he perceived that it would be well to show that these should not be regarded as synonymous terms. He was apprised that at a *Republican* convention, assembled in Baltimore, he had been selected as a candidate for the Vice-Presidency. In acknowledging the receipt of this notification, Van Buren wrote: "I cannot but regard this spontaneous expression of confidence and friendship

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from the delegated *Democracy* of the Union as laying me under renewed obligations of gratitude to them, and of fidelity to the great interests for whose advancement they were assembled," etc. During the last administration of Jackson, the word *Democracy*, as expressive of a national party, sounded like sweet music in the ears of many men, who hitherto had been identified with old Republican principles. When Van Buren was nominated for the Presidency in 1835 the convention passed resolutions to the effect that the Federal Government is one of "*limited powers*," that Congress has no power to charter a United States Bank; that "the Constitution does not confer upon the General Government the power to commence and carry on a general system of internal improvement," etc., and finally, with reference to the tariff, it was resolved: "That justice and sound policy forbid the Federal Government to foster one branch of industry to the detriment of another, or to cherish the interest of one portion to the injury of another portion of our common country."

Like his predecessors, Van Buren was a *poseur* for all sides, in order to secure the high honor he coveted. In the North he was supported as a Republican, while the South supported him as the next best available successor to Jackson. A noted orator, John P. Kennedy, has given in a political speech this account of the genesis of the Van Buren scheme: "When Mr. Van Buren succeeded General Jackson, the party, being under a new leader, could

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no longer retain the name 'Jacksonian,' by which they had been content to be known, and there was not potency enough in that of the new President to allow them to substitute his. The Van Buren party could not hope to work a spell by that designation. So, sir, at his (Mr. Van Buren's) suggestion, as I have reason to believe, they cunningly enough took up the then appropriated name of the 'Democratic Party,' without the slightest reference to its significance in relation to their principles, — even with a consciousness of the absurd masquerade in which it presented them — and boldly determined to outface the world's ridicule upon its incongruity, and to wear it in spite of the derision of enemies or honest shame of friends. It was a cunning part of this device to cast upon the opponents of this new Democratic party the correlative term, which, in old times, had existed of the Federal party; and accordingly, sir, the whole line of newspaper batteries by which the new party was defeated, opened upon the Whigs an incessant fire, in which every gun was loaded with the charge Federalism. From that period we are to date the birth of this extraordinary nondescript, the new Democracy, and the miracle of Mr. Madison's identification and the identification of his friends with the old Federal party of 1816."

Eliminating, if need be, the partisan words used by Mr. Kennedy, we still have a true enough glimpse of the formal organization of the Democratic party as it has since been known and understood.

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The Compromise Act was followed by an increasing financial depression, which culminated in the tremendous panic of 1837. The crash was general and appalling, but the blame cannot justly be placed on the tariff as the sole cause of this widespread financial revulsion. Other cumulative circumstances aided not a little, and these included vexed constitutional questions which agitated the public mind.

In Colton's Life of Henry Clay, volume I, are given some significant details as to the extent and nature of this crash. He says: "In some parts of Pennsylvania the people were obliged to divide bank-notes into halves, quarters, eighths and so on, and agree from necessity to use them as money. In Ohio, with all her abundance, it was hard to get money to pay taxes." The farmers could find no markets for their products, which, in hundreds upon hundreds of instances, rotted in their barns, while as many others were dispossessed by the sheriff. Mr. Van Buren, believed to be personally in favor of protection, was publicly neutral-minded on the subject, and said little or nothing about it, one way or another.

In 1840, protection was condemned and free trade practically indorsed by the Democratic National Convention. But popular opinion was again drifting toward protection; and in 1841, William H. Harrison succeeded to the Presidency. A sturdy Whig and strong protectionist, he died a month after his inauguration, and was succeeded by John Tyler,

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also a protectionist, but of a less decisive type, owing to his Southern training and associations. The Whig majority which now had control in Congress soon set the protectionist ball whirling. They introduced two tariff bills successively, which Tyler promptly vetoed, on account of the distribution clause that each contained. The Whigs and Tyler already had disagreed as to the distribution among the States of the proceeds of the public lands. The distribution clause was omitted from the third bill presented, which he signed, and which went into force September 1, 1842. It was largely a political measure, though it was, as the Whigs represented it to be, distinctively protective. The high rates, however, of the bill of 1832 were not warranted. The average duties on all imports were twenty-two and three-fourths, and on dutiable goods thirty-two and one-half per centum. The general effects of this tariff throughout the larger part of the country were remedial and encouraging. Business was resuscitated to a normal condition, farm products were in demand, prices revealed an upward tendency. Especially were the manufacturing interests commercially invigorated. But this golden era was doomed to a short life. Another political expedient was soon to replace the Tariff Act of 1842.

The Democratic party was now dominated by the slave power of the South. As had become the custom, the Democratic National Convention, in 1844, opposed protection and indorsed practical free trade,

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placing James K. Polk in the field against Henry Clay, the Whig candidate. Mr. Polk had been an out-and-out free trader for years, but he knew his election could scarcely be accomplished unless he secured the electoral vote of Pennsylvania, a strong protectionist State. How then was he to proceed? Mr. Kane of Pennsylvania, anxious to know how Mr. Polk stood on the Tariff issue, addressed the latter a letter of inquiry. Mr. Polk is said to have been engaged forty days in preparing a reply, which would convince the Pennsylvanians, without his saying it in so many words, that he was a protectionist. It was, in its way, a masterpiece of dissimulation and created the desired effect. His chances, however, were reinforced by the candidacy for the Vice-Presidency of George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania, a recognized protectionist. And thus State local pride was awakened by the battle-cry of "Polk, Dallas and the Tariff of 1842." The section on which this fraud was perpetrated was led to believe that Mr. Polk was "a better protectionist than Mr. Clay," because the latter had been the father of the Compromise Act. With the South Mr. Polk dealt quite differently, or at least with its leaders. On matters relating to slavery, extension, the tariff, etc., he satisfied them that he would be their obedient servant to command, and so he proved to be. The South trusted him and he was elected. It was a political victory, but it had a far-reaching, and, in the main, a detrimental effect upon the subsequent tariff legistion of the country.

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The Tariff of 1846.

It was not long before the protectionist voters for Mr. Polk realized that they had been beautifully hoodwinked. Mr. Robert J. Walker of Mississippi became Secretary of the Treasury, and his first annual report, made under date of December 3, 1845, indicated the attitude which the party of the administration had determined to assume. Mr. Walker was a glib talker on finance and had won a questionable reputation in achieving a repudiation of the debts of the State of Mississippi. His most exalted aim was to be accepted as the mouthpiece of the free traders, and, there being no abler thinker at the time to compete with him for such a rank, he was allowed to constitute himself the leading advocate of an economical system that was to be welcomed with delight at the South. Walker's report was long and elaborate, its salient assumption being as follows, in his own language: "We have more fertile lands than any other nation; can raise a greater variety of products, and, it may be said, could feed and clothe the people of nearly all the world. Agriculture is our chief employment. It is best adapted to our situation. We can raise a larger surplus of agricultural products, and a greater variety than almost any other nation, and at cheaper rates. Remove then from agriculture all our restrictions, and by its own unfettered power it will break down all foreign restrictions, and, ours being removed,

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would feed the hungry and clothe the poor of our fellow men, through all the densely peopled nations of the world."

The bill for the repeal of the Tariff Act of 1842 was submitted in 1846, and after a strenuous opposition by the Whigs in Congress was carried by the casting vote of George M. Dallas, who owed his preferment as Vice-President to his professed adherence to protection.

According to one writer, "the victory of the Anti-Corn Law League in England in 1846 produced a profound impression in America. The notion became common that the path of prosperity had been thrown open to us in the repeal of the English import duties on our grain." But he admits the iron business suffered, because the reduction through the horizontal system to thirty per cent *ad valorem* gave the foreigners an entrance to the American market, and to undersell the home produce, the demand in England having become next to nothing, owing to the great crash in railroad speculation there.

In the latter part of July, 1846, Daniel Webster made a three days' speech, one of his grandest oratorical efforts, in opposition to the Walker bill, which, he maintained, narrowed and diminished our industries, taxed the poor man and the laborer, and in short, was a measure for the relief of the highest and most luxurious classes of the country. "The interest of every laboring community," he continued, "requires diversity of occupations, pursuits, and objects

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of industry. The more that diversity is multiplied, even extended, the better. To diversify employment is to increase employment and to enhance wages."

"And, sir, take this truth; place it on the title-page of every book of Political Economy intended for the use of the United States; put it in every farmer's almanac; let it be the heading of the column of every mechanic's magazine; proclaim it everywhere, and make it a proverb, that where there is work for the hands of men, there will be work for their teeth. Where there is employment there will be bread. It is a great blessing to be poor, to have cheap food, but greater than that, prior to that of still higher value, is the blessing of being able to buy food, by honest and respectable employment. Employment feeds and clothes and instructs. Employment gives health, sobriety, and morals. Constant employment and well-paid labor produce, in a country like ours, general prosperity, content, and cheerfulness."

But the votes of Western members, converted for the time being to free-trade ideas, carried the Walker Tariff Act, which discriminated between goods that could and could not be produced at home, but in other respects it reduced the duties down to about the standard of the "Compromise" of 1833. On all kinds of imports it provided for *ad valorem* duties.

For a number of years adventitious causes served to increase the prosperity of the country under the

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Tariff of 1846, which remained unchanged until 1857. These causes will be referred to further along in the chapter dealing with Protection. The period between 1846 and 1860 is pointed to with great pride by free traders as one of unexampled prosperity, arguing that it was the direct sequence of the Walker Tariff. It, however, did not possess the staying powers that should belong to a system alleged to be so perfect in its operations. They concede that the revenue became redundant. Prof. Arthur Latham, in his *Elements of Political Economy*, agrees that it was too productive. "The revenue rose beyond the needs of the Government. The surplus in the treasury accumulated, and large sums were expended in buying up bonds not yet due at a high premium, for the sake of emptying the treasury. Under these circumstances, our eighth important tariff, the '*Tariff* of 1857,' was passed. It lowered the duties about one-quarter, and very justly applied remissions to raw materials of manufactures. The free list was also enlarged. The West did not like the lessened duties on wool, hemp, and lead, produced there, and declaimed against the 'incidental protection' accorded to Eastern manufactures through the free list and lower duties on materials. * * * Though the National Government had nothing now to do with banking and paper money, the States had multiplied banks, and the banks had multiplied bills, so that the inevitable crash came in the autumn, the imports of course

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diminished, and the revenue fell off. It recovered somewhat the next year; but political troubles began in 1860, the expenses of the Government increased, and there was a deficit. Duties on the whole imports for the fifteen years, 1846–1861, averaged seventeen and three-fourths, and on dutiable goods twenty-two and three-fourths per centum."

The War Tariff.

In 1860, South Carolina adopted her ordinance of secession, and by February 1, 1861, she was joined by six other Southern States, with still four more soon to follow. This revolt was not instigated on the spur of the moment, but was the pricking of the gigantic bubble that had been in the course of inflation for many years. The eve of that inevitable and "irrepressible conflict," which Seward and other discerning statesmen had predicted, was fast approaching. The treasury was depleted, and there was no time but for quick and effective action. The advent of Republican power made possible the passage of the Tariff Act of March 2, 1861, which was in itself but a measure of expediency. By it, specific superseded *ad valorem* duties, and these were amended and increased in the extra session, August 1, 1861, and again necessary modifications were made in the next regular session in December following. And from that time on throughout the desperate struggle, which has no counterpart in all history, until 1865 tariff legislation was enacted at every session of

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Congress. But the so-called war tariff was only one factor in the midst of this colossal upheaval. Excise taxation, specific taxes on certain manufactures, licenses, the income tax, etc., all these vigorous measures were resorted to, to raise revenue, and then at the close of the war we had on our hands a white elephant in the shape of a public debt amounting to $2,844,649,626, nearly all of it unpaid war bills, "an average expenditure of over one thousand lives and $2,000,000 a day, for four years in succession." The Tariff Act of July 1, 1862, had for its primary object a revision of the tariff on foreign imports, as Mr. Morrill stated in the House, "so far as it may be seriously disturbed by any internal duties, and to make proper reparation * * * . If we bleed manufactures, we must see to it that the proper tonic is administered at the same time."

On June 30, 1864, a sort of triple measure was passed, which was the crowning act of financial legislation during the war. It provided for an extension of the internal tax system, a corresponding increase of the duties on imports, and, lastly, authorized a loan of $400,000,000. Mr. Morrill had charge of the Tariff Act of 1864, and he had been interested in all previous ones since 1861. It made the average rate on dutiable commodities forty-seven and six-tenths per cent, and for twenty years it remained the basis of the system of import duties. All provisions of the Morrill Act of 1861, and of the Tariff Act of 1862, not expressly changed by it, were left in force. "But," says

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Taussig, "it affected so completely and with so few exceptions the whole range of import duties, and especially the protective duties, that it was practically a new general tariff."

Of course, after so long and enervating a war, how could there be much else but chaos and financial confusion? The enormous floating debt must be funded, internal taxes reformed, fiat money driven out of circulation, and other similarly vexatious matters adjusted. Doubtless the Government was a little slow in getting at the question of lowering the import duties, but Congress was too deeply engrossed in the overshadowing problems of reconstruction to bother itself with the comparatively few demands of the people for a restoration of the free trade *regime*. Many unsuccessful tariff bills were proposed, but war duties were retained, as if by the common consent of the majority of the people. As a matter of fact, many material advantages to the country were the outgrowth of the war. Permanent and magnificent industries were created for the first time, many new avenues of employment opened to our wage-earners, and these never in the world could have resulted under a free-trade system while so stupendous a war as the Rebellion was being prosecuted.

Several tariff bills were proposed in 1867, among them one drafted by Mr. David A. Wells, then Special Commissioner of the Revenue. Failing to obtain the two-thirds majority necessary it did not pass. But an important amendment to the Tariff of

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1861 was adopted March, 1867, by which duties on wool were increased to ten and twelve cents per pound. *Ad volorem* duties were also raised to ten and eleven per cent according to quality.

The act of 1870 was in some degree a concession to the demand for reduced taxation and tariff reform. Many articles in the nature of luxuries were placed on the free list, while the duties on others, such as sugar, coffee, tea, wines, and spices were lowered. The duty on pig-iron was reduced $2 a ton. But the duties on marble, on nickel, and on various other articles were considerably augmented. A notable increase of duties was laid by Congress on steel rails, amounting to $28 a ton, and also on ingots.

After a protracted wrangle in both Houses a bill was passed in 1872, giving a uniform reduction of ten per cent on all the great protective industries, such as iron, steel, paper, glass, leather, cotton, and wool. Some raw materials were admitted free of duty, and the duties on such necessities as salt and coal were materially lowered. At the time, Mr. John L. Hayes, for many years Secretary of the Wool Manufacturers' Association, referred to this tariff as "reducing duties $53,000,000 and yet leaving the great industries almost intact."

In the following year came the financial crash — the Black Friday. But this panic is not regarded by the highest authorities in political and economic science as the result of the tariff. Its advent was due rather to external causes, among the most danger-

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ous of which, perhaps, was the expansion of the currency and of credits. A repeal of the reduction of duties made in 1872 was passed in 1875 as a necessary measure to increase the depleted revenue. Duties were put back to the standard of three years before. During the years intervening to 1883, several attempts were made at so-called reform of the tariff, which were of minor consequence. The Tariff Act of 1883 reduced the figures on most woollens, but on certain classes of woollens, as, for instance, dress goods made entirely of wool, the duties were advanced. A nominal reduction was made on the common grades of cotton goods, but on laces, insertings, embroideries, trimmings, etc., made of cotton, the duty was increased five per cent over the old rate that on this class of commodities had obtained since 1861. There was a slight reduction of duties on steel ingots, bars, sheets and coils, copper, and marble. Many agricultural products were left at their former rate. It was a peculiar act, whose object has been defined as *protection through reduction.* It found its excuse, if it could have any, in being something like a sop to public sentiment. The Democratic National Convention in 1880 had passed resolutions in favor of "a tariff for revenue only," and the policy of that party was as emphatically as ever committed to free trade.

The Morrison bill, fought over in 1884, was defeated by a narrow majority in the House of only four votes. The leading English newspapers at that

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time candidly deplored the defeat of this measure, and admitted that had it passed it would have been worth $500,000,000 per annum to British manufacturers. Again in 1888 Mr. Mills of Texas, as chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, introduced his famous free-trade bill, as he said, "in response to the recommendations of Mr. Cleveland." It managed to squeeze through the House, but it was promptly laid to its long rest in the Republican Senate.

And this brings us to the McKinley Tariff, which became the law of the land in October, 1890. Its passage created a more general interest in the tariff question than any other that has gone on our statute books, and to-day there is no livelier, more complex or absorbing problem before the people of the United States. That it has been rashly vilified by blind partisans every fair-minded citizen knows, while on the other hand, it would be foolish to give an exaggerated estimate of its virtues. What are its main features? First, it made a distinct change in the wool and woollen schedule. The duties on clothing wool were raised one cent per pound; on combing wool they were increased two cents per pound over the Tariff of 1883. On carpet-wool *ad valorem* duties, ranging from thirty-two to fifty per cent, were substituted for specific duties. Varying rates on woollen cloths, according to their value, were advanced. If worth 30 cents or less per pound, 33 cents per pound, plus forty per cent; if worth between

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30 and 40 cents per pound, 38½ cents per pound, plus forty per cent; if worth more than 40 cents per pound, 44 cents per pound, plus fifty per cent. A still higher average of duties was placed on ready-made clothing. This new classification augmented the duties on dress-goods, and without doubt to the benefit of the domestic manufacturer. Knit goods and underwear were dutied higher; likewise linens of the better grade. With some articles, like plush, "a complicated scheme of duties was adopted, partly specific and partly *ad valorem*, and varying with the value of the goods."

The McKinley Act is a reminder of the act of 1828 in its "great development of the methods of minimum valuations and minimum duties." And it is urged that the pursuance of this method is open to more than one valid objection. But no tariff act can please everybody, and we may be reasonably certain that absolutely permanent tariff laws in this Republic will never be established.

It is true that the duties on some agricultural products, such as wheat, Indian corn, eggs, potatoes, barley and on textile materials like hemp and flax, have been changed by the McKinley Act. At the same time it has accomplished the remission of the duty on sugar and admitted raw sugar free, retaining the duty of one-half cent per pound on refined sugar. Furthermore, a bounty at the rate of two cents a pound is given on all domestic sugar for nearly a dozen years to come. Reciprocity provis-

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ions accompanying the bill, giving the President power "to impose by proclamation certain duties on sugar, molasses, tea, coffee and hides, if he considers that any country exporting these commodities to the United States imposes duties or other exactions on the agricultural or other products of the United States, which, in view of the free introduction of sugar, molasses, tea, coffee and hides into the United States, he may deem to be reciprocally unjust or unreasonable."

These reciprocity treaties thus far have proven singularly advantageous to the United States, and there can be no question as to their superiority over the old-fashioned mode of reciprocity.

The brief historical survey here given of tariff legislation in this country might or might not provide material out of which inductive reasoning would go too far. The protective periods, as they may be called, do not prove in any conclusive manner that a high tariff is always essential to the prosperity of the country any more than it can be irrefutably demonstrated that free-trade ideals—under which the country has happened to flourish temporarily—constitute the only proper system to maintain. Manifold conditions may render the one more acceptable than the other at a given time to the whole people. We cannot decide in any positive fashion what might have been had such and such tariff legislation been enacted in a certain year instead of that which was enacted. We can only reason by analogy and argue upon the

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illusive foundation of incidents and statistics. There is a popular belief to the effect that any thing can be proven by figures, but it should not be forgotten that figures can be made to lie, even if in themselves they are not guilty of that vice.

Throughout this long contention the sharpest differences of opinion have hinged upon the question of what articles shall be taxed. In this connection we cannot present a more clean-cut elucidation than by a single, but somewhat extended paragraph, from the pages of Taussig's exhaustive *Tariff History of the United States.* It is worded as follows: "The difference in effect between duties on articles like tea and coffee on the one hand, and articles like iron and wool on the other, is easily stated. Both are indirect taxes, reaching the consumer in the shape of higher prices on the commodities he uses. But when a duty is imposed on an article like tea and coffee, the whole increase in price to the consumer is offset by the same amount of revenue received by the Government; whereas, when a duty is imposed on an article, like iron or wool, the effect is different. In the latter case, also, the commodity is increased in price to the consumer, and he is thereby taxed. So far as the articles continue to be imported, the increased price, as in the case of tea and coffee, represents revenue received by the Government. But when the consumer buys and uses an article of this kind made at home, he must pay an increased price or tax, quite as much as when he

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buys the imported article, with the difference that the tax is not paid to the Government, but to the home producer. The extra price so received by the home producer does not necessarily or, indeed, usually, yield him exceptionally high profits. It is true that in some cases of more or less perfect monopoly he may make, permanently or for a long time, exceptionally high profits; and in these cases there is ground for saying that the protective system has the effect of 'robbing Peter to pay Paul.' But in the majority of cases, where the conditions of monopoly do not exist, the home producer, while getting a higher price, because of the duty, does not make correspondingly high profits. It may cost more, for one reason or another, to make the article at home than it costs to make it abroad, and the duty simply seems to offset this disadvantage of the domestic producer. In not a few cases, while it may cost more to make the article at home than abroad, the duty is greater than the difference it cost. Domestic competition then will cause the price at home to fall to a point less than the foreign price plus the duty; importation will cease; and yet a virtual tax will still be levied in the shape of prices higher than those which would obtain if there were no duty. Whatever be the details for the working of a protective duty, it is *prima facie* less desirable than a revenue duty, on the simple ground that the tax seems not to yield revenue, but to offset the greater cost of making the commodity at home. Whether

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the stimulus to domestic production brings other benefits to the community, sufficient to compensate for this disadvantage of protective duties, involves the whole problem of the operation of international trade; indeed, the discussion spreads over the entire range of economic principles, and can be settled only by reasoning in which all those principles are taken into account."

Another point of disagreement among financiers and economists — and the politicians for half a century have made it a convenient bone to snarl about — is, what kind of duties is wisest and most practical? Some very astute statesmen have insisted that specific duties deserve to be called fiscal duties, and that *ad valorem* duties should be designated as economical duties. Now it has been the practice that on all goods of a given kind, without reference either to their fineness or value, specific duties exact a stated amount for each pound, yard's length or square foot. Of one hundred and sixty enumerated articles subject to a tax in 1792, *ad valorem* duties were imposed on one hundred and two of them, the remainder being concerned with specific duties. For more than a generation after 1792 *ad valorem* duties relatively decreased. From the act of 1846 to the beginning of the Civil War specific duties were kept in the background. Both *doctrinaire* and practical protectionists have usually favored specific duties, while the preponderating number of free traders have ever raised their voices in behalf of *ad valorem* duties.

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YEARS.	No. of Duties.	
	Specific.	*Ad valorem.*
1804	102	92
1816	121	92
1824	182	121
1828	202	133
1842	313	326
1846 only *ad valorem* duties	.....	.....
1861	237	528
1870	565	455

Robert J. Walker, to whom allusion has been made, in 1845, in his report as Secretary of the Treasury, earnestly declared that *ad valorem* duties were the only *proper* duties. During the discussion in Congress of Mr. Walker's report, a representative averred that specific duties had been adopted by the Government, not because *ad valorem* duties had been found wanting, but in order to conceal the amount of the duty from the public. A commentator on the above has attempted to substantiate it by remarking that wherever *ad valorem* and specific duties have been employed in the same tariff, the latter have been generally higher than the former. In illustration he cites the following: In 1792 the average *ad valorem* duty was eleven and one-half per cent; while cotton was taxed three cents per pound, or at the then prevailing price, thirteen per cent *ad valorem;* while coal was taxed four and one-half cents per bushel, equal to twenty per cent *ad valorem.* Again

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he says: "In 1827 iron in bars paid $18 per ton, or thirty-four and one-half per cent, rolled iron a specific duty equal to forty and six-tenths per cent, and pig-iron a duty equal to thirty per cent, while the average *ad valorem* duty amounted to twenty-five and five-tenths per cent." Then goes on the same authority to say that American protectionists have favored specific duties, because just at the time when, according to their ideas, the duties ought to be relatively highest, *i. e.*, when prices rule low, duties *ad valorem* are the lowest, while specific duties grow relatively higher the lower the prices get. In other words, he means that in case some article drops in price, on which both *ad valorem* and specific duties are laid after its depreciation in value, the home producer will be protected at an accelerated per cent over the mere *ad valorem* per cent.

Who can deny that the general run of European protectionists have not demanded and do not demand *ad valorem* duties. Why? Exactly because, as our above-referred-to commentator says, specific duties favor the coarser kinds of goods more than the finer qualities, and thus direct the investment of capital to the manufacturer of the poorer grades of commodities. Which then is the preferable kind? *Ad valorem* seems the best, so claim certain writers on the subject, because of their inherent fairness, and in the opinion of these gentlemen probably no other kind would ever have been imposed had it not been for the many difficulties in the way of collecting *ad*

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valorem duties, such as the frequent impossibility of arriving at a proper valuation of the goods to be taxed. Invoices are often objected to by custom officers, who suspect that the prices of commodities have been placed too low, and they thereupon institute an appraisement. Should the appraised value be ten per cent higher than the invoice value, they must collect, in addition to the tax on the appraised value, an additional value of twenty per cent. Intentional fraud of course is punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both.

The United States Government has lost many millions of dollars through undervaluation. Especially has this been true of silk goods. The importer has too often been at the mercy of Uncle Sam's hirelings. *Ad valorem* duties, however, prevent speculation on the part of the importer, who would like to take advantage of quick fluctuations of the market in his favor. The merchant having purchased a stock of goods at favorable prices to himself, must pay just as much duty as if he had paid the usual price, and thus he is deprived of a part of his speculative gain. There is little difficulty in our ports in administering specific duties, but a considerable staff of officials is requisite for the performance of a like function with reference to *ad valorem* duties.

Customs duties have been defined as taxes which are collected from one set of persons with the expectation that they will shift the burden of taxation to another class. They share all the advantages and

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disadvantages of indirect taxes. If they are levied solely on articles not produced within the country, they exercise but little influence on the course of trade, unless they are so high as to materially lessen the consumption or as to lead to smuggling; if laid on articles of prime necessity, they increase the expense of living and bear harder on the poorer classes of the community than on the wealthy; if levied on articles needed in manufacturing, they increase the price of the manufactured commodity by more than the amount of the duty, for the manufacturer must charge interest on the sum he has advanced for the duty until he can get his commodity ready for market; if levied on goods similar to those manufactured in the country, it becomes a protective duty.

Robert Ellis Thompson, in one of his lectures in Harvard University in 1885, said: "A tariff for revenue only either levies duties exclusively on articles not made at home, or it compensates duties on articles made at home by equal excise duties on the home production. A protective tariff selects for duty those articles which come into competition with home-made articles, and it taxes these on the principle that their consumption should be discouraged and that of the home-made articles encouraged. Its purpose is to divert the capital of the country into a channel in which it otherwise would not or could not flow, or would flow less freely." Mr. Thompson, with all the confidence of a radical, added that the "protectionist plan is to extend our manufactures

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until we make at home $258,000,000 worth of goods we now import, and feed the workmen we employ in making them with the surplus of our agriculture we now have to export. To effect that there must be persistence in our tariff policy."

It is not our purpose to discuss here whether the workingman has come fully into the possession of his own, but he certainly should find some consolation in comparing his lot to that of his own class in the old days. What was the condition of labor a century ago? In 1795 skilled laborers, such as type-setters, earned $1 a day in Philadelphia. At Albany laborers, in abundance could be had for three (York) shillings a day. At Richmond, wages ranged from 1s. 6d. to 1s. 10d., except in harvest time when from 2s. 4d. to 3s. 10d. were paid in Virginia, currency worth $3.33 to the pound. In New York city, hatters in 1794 could earn as much as $2 a day and carpenters 10d. an hour. Sailors were paid $24 a month. In 1797 Rhode Island farm hands earned $3 a month, $5 a month being paid to those who obtained employment for the eight busy months of the farmer's year. Rugged lads in Connecticut toiled for $1 a month from sunrise till after dark.

And correspondingly produce brought wretched prices. Eight cents a pound was all butter would bring. Says a veracious chronicler: "Women picked the wool off the bushes and briars where the sheep had left it, and spun it into mittens to earn $1 a year by this toilsome business. They hired out as

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help for 25 cents a month and their board. By a day's hard work at the spinning wheel a woman and girl together could earn 12 cents. As late as 1821 the best farm hands could be had for 25 cents a day, or twice as much in mowing time."

Imagine a thrifty farmer's wife now slaving in that manner. These are the lessons we read of degraded labor. Behold what a splendid change has been wrought in the industrial welfare of the nation since those soul-trying times.

In 1820 thirteen and seven-tenths per cent of the working population were engaged in manufactures and the mechanic arts; in 1840 seventeen and one-tenth per cent. In New England twenty-one per cent were so engaged in 1820; thirty and two-tenths per cent in 1840; in the Middle States twenty-two and six-tenths per cent in 1810, and twenty-eight per cent in 1840. Only four cotton factories in the country were in operation in 1804. Previously numerous efforts had been made to prosecute the cotton industry, but proper machinery was wanting, and accordingly we depended upon England for cotton goods. Eleven million dollars' worth were imported in 1807. But the importance of the domestic manufacture of cotton was thoroughly appreciated by our countrymen at that time. Fifteen mills running 8,000 spindles were in operation in 1808, and in the following year we had sixty-two mills, with 31,000 spindles, and twenty-five other mills were being built.

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Within thirty miles of Providence, in 1812, there were fifty factories, operating nearly 60,000 spindles, and capable of operating 100,000.

During the war raw cotton increased in the South, and the growth continued. As the last important step in giving textile manufactures their present form, the power loom was introduced in 1804. In the succeeding year 500,000 spindles were running, consuming 90,000 bales of cotton.

Many sites of present flourishing New England cities like Lowell, Nashua, etc., were chosen for mills shortly after the crisis of 1818–19, when cotton manufacturing, having been shown to be profitable, was begun on an extensive scale.

The official statistics of the Government previous to 1840 are rather shaky and meagre. But for and since that year fairly authentic sources of information are at hand concerning nearly all national matters.

As this volume is intended more particularly for the instruction and benefit of the farmer, certain figures relevant to the growth and extension of agriculture might not be deemed out of place here.

One fact merits emphasis and that is this: The agricultural capital of the United States has increased six-fold since 1840, at the rate of £67,000,000 per annum. Between 1840 and 1888 the area of tillage and planting increased sixty-five per cent, but the

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grain crops advanced one hundred and twenty per cent, viz.:

YEAR.	Millions of bushels.
1840	616
1860	1,240
1887	2,586

Improved implements of husbandry and the introduction of machinery have made tillage more productive and grain cheaper. The following table, in millions of bushels, shows the distribution of grain growing in 1887 in this country:

Wheat.	Oats.	Barley.	Various.	Total.	Wheat.	Oats.	Barley.	Various.	Total.
38	26	3	75	142	442	640	58	1,446	2,586

Another significant fact is that 9,000,000 hands in the United States raise nearly half as much grain as 66,000,000 in Europe. Thus it appears that for want of implements or proper machinery there is a waste of labor in Europe equal to forty-eight millions of peasants. In other words, one farm laborer in the United States is worth more than three in Europe. According to Mulhall, £776,000,000 sterling, or about $3,779,120,000 represent the value of all agricultural products in the United States, where 2,220 pounds of grain per inhabitant are produced,

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and where, it is estimated, that 222 acres are under grain per 100 inhabitants.

The production of meat during the period alluded to above was approximately as follows:

YEAR.	Tons.
1840	2,120,000
1860	2,970,000
1887	4,750,000

The production of meat has risen fifty-seven per cent since 1840.

The following table gives the number of millions of acres of area under crops in our country during an interval of sixty-eight years:

YEAR.	Millions of acres.
1820	30
1840	50
1860	90
1880	166
1888	201

The number of people engaged in tillage and pastoral industries in the United States, between 1840 and 1887, was as follows:

1840	2,550,000
1860	4,340,000
1887	9,000,000

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The rates of capital and products that corresponded to the agricultural population, that is to each adult farmer, were:

Capital.		Product.	
1840.	1887.	1840.	1887.
$1,175	$2,050	$360	$425

Each hand in the United States produces double the annual value that prevails in Europe. In 1886–7, we had 168,000,000 bushels of grain to export. In that year the value of agricultural and pastoral products is shown as follows:

Millions of Dollars.			Per agricultural laborer.
Agricultural.	Pastoral.	Total.	
$2,335,000,000	$1,545,000,000	$3,880,000,000	$425

Our approximate agricultural capital in 1888 was as follows:

Millions of Dollars.			Total.	Per Inhabitant.
Land.	Cattle	Sundries		
12,800,000,000	2,505,000,000	3,175,000,000	18,480,000,000	$285

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Approximately the principal features of the agricultural industry from 1840 to 1887 were:

Capital in Dollars.		Product in Dollars.		Hands ——		Production Per Head	
1840.	1887.	1840.	1887.	1840.	1887.	1840.	1887.
2,980,000,000	18,480,000,000	920,000,000	3,880,000,000	2,550,000	9,000,000	$360	$425

A chief occupation of the first settlers was tillage. Captain Gornold of Massachusetts grew peas and beans in 1602; and in 1611 wheat was grown in Virginia. The Dutch of Manhattan (New York) in 1626 sent home to Holland a quantity of wheat. Potatoes introduced from England in 1629 were successfully grown in Massachusetts. Old records bear witness to the incident of Mr. Endicott of Salem selling 500 choice fruit trees for 250 acres of land, and in the preceding year certain solemn burghers in Holland had been recipients of apples grown on the Island of Manhattan. In 1749 South Carolina exported 700 bushels of potatoes and in the succeeding year New York shipped abroad 70,000 barrels of flour. Only on the basis of population can be estimated the production of grain in the eighteenth century, and that but roughly; for the exact returns begin with 1840. However, the following table, of the grain production of the United States, compiled by one of the world's greatest and most scientific statisticians, is very interesting:

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YEAR.	Grain Product, Million of Bushels.			Value of Crop.
	Production.	Home Consumption.	Exported.	
1700	5	5	.....	$5,000,000
1750	20	20	.....	15,000,000
1775	60	60	.....	40,000,000
1790	120	120	.....	70,000,000
1800	160	160	.....	94,000,000
1820	343	336	7	185,000,000
1830	463	455	8	230,000,000
1840	616	601	15	310,000,000
1850	867	855	12	485,000,000
1860	1,240	1,220	20	865,000,000
1870	1,629	1,569	60	990,000,000
1880	2,718	2,425	293	1,380,000,000
1889	3,454	.....	.....	1,215,000,000

At present the production is about fifty-two bushels per inhabitant, against thirty in the year 1800. It forms thirty-three per cent of the whole grain crop of the world, and the ratio per inhabitant is only approached by Denmark, which has forty-two bushels per inhabitant.

The percentage increase from 1869 to 1889, of wheat, was 99; maize, 111; oats, 190; barley, 191; rye, 42. The various crops, from 1840 to 1889, were:

YEAR.	Millions of Bushels.						Bushels per inhabitant.
	Maize.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Rye, etc.	Total.	
1840	378	123	85	4	26	616	36
1850	592	147	101	5	23	868	38
1860	840	173	173	16	38	1,240	40
1870	1,094	248	236	26	25	1,629	42
1880	1,717	418	499	45	39	2,718	54
1889	2,110	750	490	64	40	3,454	53

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The production of grain in various parts of the Union was as follows:

YEAR.	MILLIONS OF BUSHELS.				
	New England.	Middle States.	Southern.	Western.	Total.
1840.....	22	135	280	179	616
1850..... ...	20	170	360	318	868
1860.....	21	204	412	603	1,240
1870.....	16	216	301	1,096	1,629
1880.....	18	233	442	2,025	2,718
1887.....	20	244	605	1,797	2,666

We produced 36,000,000 pounds of cotton in 1800, of which the home use amounted to 16,000,000, and 20,000,000 of pounds were exported, the value of the crop being £2,000,000. Of 3,440,000,000 pounds produced in 1888, our home use comprised 1,060,000,000 pounds, our export, 2,380,000,000 pounds, value, $305,000,000.

The average crop is reckoned to be 190 pounds of ginned cotton per acre. The crop of cotton seed usually reaches 3,000,000 tons, worth a little over $5 per ton.

In 1800 we produced 107,000,000 pounds of tobacco, of which the home use amounted to 18,000,000 pounds, our export 89,000,000 pounds, the value of the crop being $6,500,000. In 1888 we produced 566,000,000, pounds, home use, 224,000,000, export, 342,000,000, value, £9,100,000. In 1850 we produced 313,000,000 pounds of butter and 106,000,000 pounds of cheese. In 1880 we produced 777,000,000 pounds of butter, 272,000,000 pounds of

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cheese and 530,000,000 gallons of milk, of which New York State furnished 232,000,000 gallons. In 1840 we produced 155,000,000 pounds of sugar; in 1886 we produced 240,000,000 pounds. We produced 36,000,000 pounds of wool in 1840; in 1886 we produced 320,000,000 pounds. In 1840 we produced 10,000,000 tons of hay; in 1886 we produced 42,000,000 tons. We produced 108,000,000 bushels of potatoes in 1840; in 1886 we produced 168,000,000 bushels. The increase of farming area between 1850 and 1880 was:

STATES.	Millions of Acres.		Rate of increase per cent.
	1850.	1880.	
New England	18	22	22
Middle	43	53	23
Southern	165	227	38
Western	67	232	248
Total to the United States	293	534	82

The area of improved lands in the same interval increased thus:

STATES.	Millions of Acres.		Rate of increase per cent.
	1850.	1880.	
New England	11	13	28
Middle	26	37	42
Southern	49	82	67
Western	27	153	467
Total for the United States	113	285	152

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The dimensions of the United States may be briefly expressed thus:

	Millions of acres.	Ratio.
Under crops	212	9.2
Under pasture	447	19.5
Under forest	176	7.6
Unsettled lands	1,456	63.7
	2,291	100.0

In 1609 cattle were first introduced into Virginia and some fifteen years later they were introduced into New England. So rapidly did they increase that in 1639 the number in the colonies was estimated at 30,000. Considerable attention was given to dairy farming in the eighteenth century, and it thrived very well. One enterprising Rhode Island farmer in 1750 owned 100 milch cows, and another in the same year made and sold six tons of cheese. But cattle farming in general had many set-backs at first in the colonies. Such were the rigors of existence that hogs, goats and sheep were killed and eaten as fast as they were introduced. But after awhile Virginia made it punishable with death to kill any of those animals — supplied, by the way, from the West Indies. In 1627 the price of a cow in New York was $150, while a yoke of oxen was worth $200. At the same period it is recorded that, in addition to sheep and hogs, twenty head of horned

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cattle were consumed weekly through the Philadelphia city market. In Virginia sheep were found to thrive, but their wool was not utilized, though the sheep were shorn to keep them cool.

Here follows some interesting figures as to the remarkable development of live stock in this country:

	1810.	1840.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Horses...	300,000	4,300,000	4,900,000	6,200,000	7,100,000	10,400,000	14,200,000
Mules ...	.....	.....	.....	1,200,000	1,100,000	1,800,000	2,300,000
Cattle ...	600,000	14,900,000	17,800,000	25,600,000	23,800,000	35,900,000	52,800,000
Sheep ...	600,000	19,300,000	21,700,000	22,500,000	28,500,000	35,200,000	44,300,000
Pigs.....	.....	26,300,000	30,350,000	33,500,000	25,100,000	47,700,000	51,600,000

By the same statistical basis the meat supply may be taken at 500 pounds per beef carcass; 50 pounds per sheep, and 110 pounds per pig. Tallow is as 14 to 100 pounds of beef or mutton, and lard, 20 to 100 pounds of pig's meat. In the Western States the prices are lower than in other parts of the Union, but their wealth possessions in cattle aggregate two-thirds of the total, amounting to 339,000,000 sterling. This sum far exceeds the value of live stock in any European country except Russia, says Mulhall, and is five times as great as that of the cattle of all kinds in Australasia.

The census of 1880 demonstrates that of all farming hands, seventy-six per cent were males between sixteen and sixty years of age. But for the years previous, during the long slavery period, accurate data is wanting. In later years we have seen that

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improved machinery has rendered farm labor much more productive. The explanation is, contends an English authority, that wheat, for example, has fallen sixty cents a bushel, and maize is in the same ratio.

Now let us look at the value of products consumed at home and abroad:

YEAR.	MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.			Value home consumption per inhabitants.
	Home Consumption.	Exported.	Total.	
1840	835,000,000	85,000,000	920,000 000	$0 90
1850	1,120,000,000	130,000,000	1,250,000,000	50
1860	1,835,000,000	310,000,000	2,145,000,000	60
1870	2,100,000,000	410,000,000	2,510,000,000	55
1880	2,805,000,000	710,000,000	3,515,000,000	55
1886	3,375,000,000	505,000,000	3,880,000,000	65

According to the great divisions of the country the values were:

STATES.	MILLIONS OF DOLLARS (1886.)			RATIO.	
	Agricultural.	Pastoral.	Nominal 1880.	1880.	1886.
New England	90,000,000	85,000,000	175,000,000	5.0	4.5
Middle	310,000,000	305,000,000	615,000,000	16.5	15 7
Southern	750,000,000	280,000,000	1,030,000,000	28.5	26.5
Western	1,185,000,000	875,000,000	2,060,000,000	50.0	53.3
Total for the U. S.	2,335,000,000	1,545,000,000	3,880,000,000		

Statistics tend to prove that the individual gain of those engaged in agriculture were greatest in the period from 1841 to 1860, averaging $125 a year. The civil war had a depressing effect, the average accumulation falling to $50 a year in the decade ending 1870, but since then there has been a great

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recovery, the average reaching $75 per head per annum.

This was not the average of earnings, but of savings, a result unexampled elsewhere. The trade of the United States, from 1861 to 1886, was:

	Millions of Dollars.			
	1861-70.	1871-80.	1881-86.	26 years.
Imports	$2,465,000,000	$4,940,000,000	$4,035,000,000	$11,440,000,000
Exports	1,805,000,000	5,610,000,000	4,730,000,000	12,145,000,000

From 1821–'40 the United States, which, next to Great Britain, is the largest consumer of cotton, produced cotton cloth amounting approximately in English statute miles to 3,700,000. From 1881 to 1887, the output aggregated 16,200,000. We now have about 13,500,000 spindles and about 200,000 operatives, the value of the output being $301,000,000. The cotton consumed, in millions of pounds, amounts to 1010.

The yearly value of our chief occupations, is as follows:

Agriculture	$3,880,000,000
Manufactures	7,215,000,000
Mining	535,000,000
Transportation	1,155,000,000
Commerce	1,600,000,000
Total	$14,385,000,000
Per inhabitant	$230

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The United States has nearly 3,000,000 factory operatives. The average of working hours of wages weekly in this country, from 1840 to 1880, was:

Hours Weekly.		Wages Weekly.		Per Hour.	
1840.	1880.	1840.	1888.	1840.	1880.
78	68	$3 50	$6 72	$0 04¼	$0 11

The revenue of the United States, in 1880, was $9,500,000, in 1889, $403,000,000. The annual revenues of this country, in the decade, 1871–'80, were:

Customs	$130,000,000
Property tax	.....
Various	180,000,000
Total	$311,000,000

In 1888 the wealth of the United States was $64,120,000,000; debt, $1,105,000,000, the ratio of debt being 1.7.

In 1887 the United States produced in tons, 2,190,000 of beef, 390,000 of mutton, 2,170,000 of pork, total, 4,750,000, the consumption being 4,100,000. We produce 150 pounds of meat yearly, per inhabitant. This country has 205 millions of acres of cultivated land, 2,086 of uncultivated, total, 2,291 millions of acres. The number of owners of this land is placed at 4,005,000; average acres per estate, 134; value of land, 2,560 millions sterling.

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The Metayer, or share system of working farms, is twice as common in this country as that of tenants paying rent in money.

Below is given the cost of a workman's food in 1880:

COUNTRIES.	Remuneration Per Week.		Percentage of food cost.
	Food.	Wages.	
Great Britain.....	14 Shill.	31 Shill.	45
United States.....	$3 84	$11 52	33

The retail prices paid by workmen in 1880 were (reckoned in cents):

	England.	France.	Germany.	Italy.	New York.	Chicago.
Beef, lb.....	$0 20	$0 18	$0 18	$0 16	$0 12	$0 08
Bread.....	04	025	04	06	04	04
Butter, lb.....	34	26	22	28	28	24
Eggs, doz.....	22	18	20	18	28	18
Milk, qt.....	08	07	04	08	10	06
Sugar, lb	08	10	10	08	10	10
Coffee, lb	30	30	34	32	26	28
Rice, lb..... ...	06	05	08	06	10	10
Pork, lb.....	14	14	16	14	10	06
Potatoes, cwt.....	12	08	08	16	22	12

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Retail prices in Massachusetts from 1780 to 1880 were as follows:

ARTICLES.	1780–1800.	1801–1820.	1821–30.	1831–40.	1841–50.	1851–60.	1861–80.
Apples, bushel.....	$0 20	$0 44	$0 44	$0 70	$0 88	$1 00	....
Beans, qt.....	04	08	08	08	06	08	$0 08
Beef, lb.....	04	08	08	08	08	12	14
Boots, pair	6 00	5 28	4 80	3 60	3 00	2 70	2 50
Butter, lb.....	16	22	18	22	20	26	32
Calico, yd	50	38	30	24	16	10	08
Cambric, yd	1 26	80	36	26	22	20	18
Candles, lb	22	22	16	14	14	28	20
Cheese, lb.....	10	12	08	10	10	12	14
Cider, gal	06	18	20	14	16	10	25
Codfish, lb.....	04	04	04	04	04	06	08
Coffee, lb.....	22	26	20	14	12	16	32
Cottens, yd.....	36	36	20	14	12	12	....
Eggs, doz	08	22	16	20	20	22	28
Fish, lb.....	04	06	04	04	06	04	....
Flannel, yd.....	42	66	58	44	38	40	32
Ham, lb.....	04	06	04	04	04	04	06
Maize, bushel.....	80	1 18	82	78	72	1 00	...
Milk, qt.....	04	04	04	06	06	06	06
Oats, bushel	48	64	42	54	54	....	....
Potatoes, bushel	30	48	36	50	78	86	1 00
Veal.....	06	08	08	08	10	12	16
Wood, ft.....	38	42	44	82	60	70	90

Day labor in the United States brought 84 cents in 1835; in 1880, $1.32. Indoor labor brought $140 a year; in 1880, $200. Farm laborers, by the week, received in 1850, $3.84; in 1880, $6.20. The following table gives the daily remuneration in various occupations in this country, covering a period exceeding a century:

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TRADE.	DAILY REMUNERATION.					
	1770–1800.	1801–1820.	1821–1840.	1841 1860.	1861–1880.	1881–1883.
Blacksmith	$0 70	$0 84	$1 26	$1 58	$2 28	$2 00
Bookbinder	.....	.....	92	1 44	1 92	1 50
Brewer	.....	.....	.....	2 02	2 14	2 44
Butcher	34	62	92	.....	2 02	1 36
Carpenter	60	1 10	1 48	1 70	2 42	2 40
Carriages	.....	.....	1 34	1 70	2 40	2 28
Clocks	.....	1 12	1 30	1 60	2 30	.....
Clothing	.....	1 00	1 08	1 40	1 92	2 00
Cordage	.....	.....	1 16	92	1 50	.....
Cottons	.....	.....	66	98	1 40	1 28
Glass	.....	.....	1 36	2 70	1 80	2 00
Harness	.....	88	1 20	1 54	.....	.....
Hats	.....	.....	.....	2 30	1 96	1 68
Jewelry	.....	.....	98	1 50	1 54	3 20
Laborers	48	86	84	92	1 48	1 32
Machinery	.....	.....	1 36	1 90	2 48	2 26
Masons	84	1 46	1 30	1 44	2 80	2 14
Metals	.....	1 06	1 38	1 40	2 16	2 00
Millwrights	1 10	1 14	1 30	1 52	2 64	2 54
Nailers	48	1 00	1 12	1 80	2 40	1 84
Painters	.....	1 24	1 28	1 66	2 32	1 96
Paper	.....	1 08	70	1 00	1 70	1 70
Printers	.....	1 14	1 32	1 46	2 18	2 14
Shipbuilders	90	1 26	1 36	2 50	2 50	3 24
Shoemakers	74	.....	96	1 40	1 76	1 88
Stonecutters	.....	.....	1 30	1 42	2 34	2 00
Tanners	.....	1 00	1 30	1 40	2 08	1 86
Teachers	1 40	1 90	.....	.....	2 30	.....
Teamsters	.....	.....	1 16	1 36	1 44	1 76
Turners	.....	92	1 30	1 40	2 00	1 28
Woolens	.....	.....	1 06	88	1 32	1 22

The following is a statement covering twenty-three years, of the acreage employed in producing the cotton, wheat, corn, hay, tobacco and the minor cereals exported in primary form, and in such secondary forms as flour, and animals and animal products, the percentage of the whole area under each crop so employed, and the pounds of animal products exported, the showing being by averages of five years and three years, the years being harvest years ending June 30:

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Statement covering twenty-three years of the acreage employed in producing cotton, wheat, corn, hay, tobacco, etc.

	1871–75. Acres employed in growing products exported.	Per cent of area under crop.	1876–80. Acres employed in growing products exported.	Per cent of area under crop.	1881–85. Acres employed in growing products exported.	Per cent of area under crop.	1886–90. Acres employed in growing products exported.	Per cent of area under crop.	1891–93. Acres employed in growing products exported.	Per cent of area under crop.
Cotton	6,600,000	69.4	8,500,000	68 4	10,600,000	67.9	12,000,000	67 4	14,200,000	66.1
Wheat	5,100,000	24.2	8,900,000	29.4	11,600,000	30 2	9,400,000	26.0	11,500,000	31.2
Corn, primary	1,100,000	3.1	3,000,000	5.6	2,300,000	3.5	2,500,000	3.3	2,200,000	3.0
Corn, secondary	2,400,000	6.5	4,800,000	9.0	5,200,000	7 9	5,600,000	7.3	7,400,000	10.3
Hay	2,000,000	8.9	3,000,000	14.0	4,600,000	12 8	5,000,000	10.5	7,300,000	13.0
Tobacco, oats, etc.	200,000	1.5	300,000	1.5	400,000	1.4	500,000	1.5	600,000	1.6
Total area empl'd for exportation.	17,400,000	16.5	29,400,000	21.0	34,700,000	19.0	35,000,000	16.8	43,200,000	19.7
Animal products, exported pounds..	683,600,000		1,351,300,000		1,981,900,000		1,342,800,000		1,733,217,000	

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Of the 4,650,000 farms in the United States, one quarter are mortgaged, the rest being owned free of encumbrance. The total mortgage debt resting upon the farms of the country is $2,040,000,000. The mortgages on farms are just about one-half in value of the mortgages on city and town lots, and are increasing in much smaller ratio. The per capita debt of the United States is $14. It has truly been said that mortgages on farming lands are always an incident of progress in newly developed countries, and are practically one of the necessities of development. A farmer opening up new land requires many things which can not be bought on credit at a distance, to secure which he mortgages his land, the productiveness of which is enhanced by the articles which the proceeds of the mortgage enable him to buy. Taking the whole country through, the aggregate mortgage debt on all farms is not much more than ten per cent of their total value, and in some States it is much less than this. The rate of interest varies from five and one-half to nine per cent. The average is about seven per cent. The rate is highest in those States in which the legal rate of interest is greater than in eastern communities. The legal rate of interest is six or seven per cent in most of the States, but in Idaho, Montana and Wyoming it is ten per cent or more. The income from land in every part of the United States is materially greater than the mortgage interests. Since 1860 our manufactures have increased in value from less than

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$2,000,000,000 to $7,000,000,000; the value of our farms from $2,000,000,000 to $5,000,000,000, and our yearly products of wool from 60,000,000 pounds to nearly 300,000,000 pounds. We are, to-day, the first manufacturing nation in the world. We have in thirty-three years multiplied our commerce by eight; England has only multiplied hers by four in the same time. Our railroad mileage has been multiplied by five within the same period, and the rolling stock of our railroads is computed to be worth nine times as much as the boasted merchant's marine of England.

The Free Trade Doctrine.

Since the adoption of the Federal Constitution there has always been a contention between the people of this country, arrayed against each other in political parties, in regard to the respective merits of a protective tariff and a tariff for revenue only. For over one hundred years under varying conditions of national welfare, this controversy has been persistently maintained, not only among the people at large, but in legislative halls, and it is more than probable that it will always continue.

No changes, however radical, at different eras in our national life have sufficed to effectually settle the question beyond resurrection. Whether under high tariffs or low tariffs, whether in times of great prosperity or periods of general depression there has

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always been a considerable number to contend that a policy contrary to the prevailing one would be both wise and expedient, if not imperative. Sometimes the opposition has been strong enough to effect an immediate change in the existing laws; at other times it has remained in a hopeless minority for many years, but eventually the unceasing turn of the wheel of Time has brought about some alteration in the condition of affairs, more or less satisfactory to those who desired a change. It cannot, however, be said that these mutations have invariably come about through any general belief that incalculable benefits would accrue, but often have been the result of seemingly unaccountable political caprice of the people.

From the time when the first tariff law was passed primarily to provide necessary revenue for a new and sparsely settled country with meagre resources and little if any credit, but incidentally to stimulate and encourage domestic manufactures, it has ever been the claim of those who favor a high tariff that protection is necessary for the success of American industry, and they proudly point to the enormous growth of manufacturing in this country since the Rebellion as the result of that policy. On the other hand, he that calls himself a "tariff reformer" and is referred to by his opponent as a free trader, avers that if this country has prospered it has not been on account of protection, but in spite of it; that our great national wealth to-day is not the product of

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high tariffs, but is the result of the development of the greatest natural resources in the world. Certain free traders contend that the wage question is not affected by the tariff; that the rate of wages is governed entirely by the demand and supply of labor; that under protection, labor, the great potential factor in the creation of wealth, has constantly been systematically deprived of its just and equitable proportion of the benefits derived. In discussing the tariff question in a general way it is eminently proper to give some consideration to the position maintained by those who argue in favor of a revenue or substantially "free trade" tariff and the arguments they advance in support thereof.

To begin with, it must be conceded on both sides that the condition of the country has so vastly changed during the past century that no argument can be sustained wholly upon precedent; that what was wise and expedient in 1789 is not necessarily so at the present day, and that in outlining a policy for the future the most advantageous course to be pursued can best be determined by a contemplation of present conditions and the ascertainment of the causes which have produced them. However, to fortify their respective positions both protectionists and free traders are wont to resort to the opinions of the great statesmen of the different periods of our national history, and it must be admitted that from these sources no inconsiderable amount of ammunition is drawn.

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The free trader readily admits that when the country was in its infancy, a high tariff was justifiable; that at certain times the increased expenditures, incident to war, have warranted the imposition of duties, which, though intended mainly for the collection of a necessarily large revenue, have been essentially protective in effect, but he steadfastly insists that protection at times is a flagrant discrimination in favor of the few, as against the many, which the people patiently submit to from patriotic motives in times of dire need, but which they denounce and protest against in times of profound peace and prosperity, as a measure which can find no justification. Furthermore, the free trader says that the most prominent advocates of protection in early days admitted that it was to be a temporary measure only; that there was no intention of making it the fixed and permanent policy of the nation. Under the revenue tariff, between 1789 and 1816, exports increased two hundred and forty-one per cent; under the moderate protective tariff, from 1816 to 1824, there was a decrease of twenty-one per cent; under the high protective tariff, from 1824 to 1832, there was an increase of twenty-one per cent; under the lower compromise tariff, from 1833 to 1842, there was an increase of forty-eight per cent; under the high protective tariff, from 1842 to 1846, there was an increase of one per cent; under the low tariff, from 1846 to 1857, an increase of one hundred and seventy-four per cent, and under the lower revenue

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tariff, from 1857 to 1860, an increase of thirteen per cent.

Free Trade, according to a certain Philadelphia newspaper, "means such an adjustment of taxes on imports as will cause no diversion of capital from any channel into which it would otherwise flow, into any channel opened or favored by the legislation which exacts the customs. A country may collect its entire revenue by duties on imports, and yet be an entirely Free Trade country, so long as it does not lay those duties in such a way as to lead any one to undertake any employment or make any investment he would in the absence of such duties." David A. Wells, a prolific writer on economics, defines free trade as the right of every man to freely exchange the products of his labor and services in such a way as seems to him most advantageous, subject only to such restrictions as the State may find necessary to make for the purposes of revenue or for sanitary or moral considerations. Conversely, it is the denial of the right of a free government to arbitrarily take from any person any portion of the product of his labor for the benefit of some other man who has not earned or paid for it. It is further contended by the same clever disputant that nine-tenths of all the arts and manufactures of the country exist by reason of necessity, rather than by reason of any system of revenue laws; not by any discrimination in the imposition of duties; not from any cause which it is the power of

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legislators to promote, except by assuring personal safety, the enforcement of contracts, and an honestly earned dollar as the unit of money. He maintains that there is not a single great branch of domestic manufactures which had not been established in some form in this country long before a protective tariff had been or could have been imposed. The manufacture of iron is nearly as old as the history of every colony or territory in which there is any iron ore. The manufacture of woolens is as old as the country itself, and was more truly a domestic manufacture when our ancestors were clothed in homespun than it is now. The manufacture of cotton is almost as old as the production of the fibre on our territory. So also of the manufacture of leather, boots and shoes, hardware, furniture, woodenware, paper, spirituous liquors, etc., etc. Beyond these there are to be found comparatively few persons employed on glass, pottery and silk. A protective tariff, claims Mr. Wells, cannot by any possibility directly benefit our great agricultural staples, such as wheat, corn, beef, pork, lard, tallow, butter, cheese, cotton, hay and our fresh and canned fruits and vegetables. Any thing, which, like these products, can be exported regularly, and sold in competition in foreign countries with similar foreign products, cannot be directly benefited by any tariff legislation. Nor would an immense variety of the products of our other industries be thus benefited. Not one of these commodities would be

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imported to any considerable extent if the tariff was entirely abolished and, under free trade, most of them would be manufactured and exported in vastly larger quantities than at present. It is an impertinent pretext to assert that a high tariff is necessary to maintain the wages of the American coal and iron miners or the men in our blast furnaces, at a high rate. It is argued that the greatest resulting evil of a high protection system is the burden of taxation—direct and indirect. But in spite of this the energies of our people have thus far enabled the country to bear it and still prosper. Another disastrous evil is, that in the effort to protect a fraction of our industries through taxtion and restrictions on exchanges, the cost of all the products of our entire industry is enhanced to such an extent, that as a nation, we cannot export our manufactured products, and so extend our market and increase our opportunities for domestic employment, except in those cases where our natural advantages for production are so great, as in the case of agriculture, as to overcome the increase of cost of all production, thus unnaturally and artificially created. Hence, the periodical glut of our markets and suspension of our industries and the consequent wrong done to labor. Hence, the evils of the so-called "over-production," which the free traders insist is simply a wrong name for misdirected production. We annually import from foreign countries articles of necessity, used in our domestic industries, or as the food, and for the comfort of our operatives,

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above $160,000,000 in value; on which we collect from $50,000,000 to $60,000,000 of duties, and these raise the cost of the manufactures into which they enter at least $100,000,000 higher than they need be. This in effect amounts to our granting a bounty of ten per cent on the exportations from Europe of $1,000,000,000 worth of finished products by a useless tax of $60,000,000, and to this extent make war upon our own laborers. Not more than $5 worth in one hundred of all our agricultural products could possibly be imported if there were no duty on foreign products of like kind, and if there never had been any. Not $10 worth in every hundred of all the manufactured goods, of every kind which we produce could be imported if there were no duties upon foreign goods of like kind, and if there never had been any. If all taxation on imports, except for revenue, were abrogated, it would be extremely difficult to show that as many as five persons out of every hundred who are employed in gainful occupations in this country could be injuriously affected by any competition of laborers in other countries, whose products could be sent here, even if there were no duties whatever on foreign imports; and if the changes were judiciously made, new occupations would open for them faster than their old occupations would be affected. The proof that the protective tariff policy has not secured high wages to the laborer in this country may be found in the fact that wages are the highest in the United States —

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absolutely, and in comparison with the old world rates — in those industries which do not have, or confessedly do not need, protection. Take for illustrations of this assertion the industry of food preparations in Massachusetts, all of which we export, the rates of wages being two hundred and fifty per cent higher than in Great Britain; in brick making, American wages are double those of the British, and so it is in the building trades and in the manufacture of boots and shoes. On the other hand, the American laborer has little advantage in such highly protected industries as metal and metal goods and in carpeting. But, on the whole, Mr. Wells admits that wages are higher in America than in Europe, because, owing to our great natural advantages, labor, intelligently applied, will here yield a greater or better result than in almost any other country. It has always been so, he says, ever since the first settlements within our territory, and this is the main cause of the tide of immigration that for the last two hundred years has flowed hitherward. The relations which the sums paid for labor in the great industries of this country sustain to the total value of the finished products of such industries show, according to the census of 1880, that in manufactures of wool the wages paid represent on an average sixteen per cent of the value of the finished product; in iron and steel twenty-one per cent; in cotton twenty-two per cent, and in silk thirty-seven per cent. There is no foundation for the

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assertion that high wages necessarily involve a high cost of production, for exactly the reverse is true. The high authority referred to thus defends the proposition: "Wages are labor's share of product, and in every healthy business are ultimately paid out of product. No employer of labor can continue for any great length of time to pay high wages unless his product is large. If it is not and he attempts it, it is only a question of time when his affairs will be wound up by the sheriff. On the other hand, if a high rate of wages is permanently paid in any industry, and in any country, it is in itself proof positive that the product of labor is large, that the laborer is entitled to a generous share of it, and that the employer can afford to give it to him."

In this connection Henry Watterson, editor of the Louisville *Courier Journal*, has written much. In a magazine article published in 1888, he said: "The American farmer for example — to say nothing of the millions of Americans engaged in mercantile and professional permits, who are in the same boat with the farmer — has no protection for his products. He pays relatively as high for the labor he employs as the American manufacturer. Indeed, the difference between the wages he pays his work-people and those paid by his foreign rivals to their work-people is often greater than the difference in wages paid respectively by American and European manufacturers. Yet the American farmer maintains a successful competition with the pauper labor of Europe. Why

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is this, and is it not an answer to the plea for protection to the manufacturer which is neither given to nor asked by the farmer? The farmer takes his products abroad and sells them at a profit in the home market of his foreign rival. But he cannot purchase in that market what he wants without paying a bounty in the form of protective duties collected, the moment he touches his native shore, for the benefit of the American manufacturer. In other words, he is compelled by law to pay, out of what he gets for his unprotected produce, a tax to enable his fellow-citizen, the protected manufacturer, to make a profit on what he produces. What reimbursement does the farmer get for his forced tribute to the manufacturer? He gets nothing. He is told that he gets a home market for what he has to sell and a cheaper market for what he has to buy. If he did, that would end the argument. But he does not, because if he had not exhausted the home market, he would have nothing to send abroad to sell, and if the home manufacturer could and did undersell the foreign market from which the farmer is excluded by protective duties, what need would the home manufacturer have for those duties? They are levied to enable him to make a profit against his foreign rival, and to the extent of his wants the American farmer must pay the difference." Mr. Watterson goes on to say that within twenty-five years there has been a decline in prices and that England can undersell only because the tariff has not reduced the prices in this country to

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the level of prices in England. The wages of labor in the United States are fixed by the wages of the unprotected farm hand, not of the protected factory operative. It is cheap land, not protective duties, that produces high wages, completely refuting the old protectionist theory that "high prices make high wages, and that low prices make low wages." High prices have often coexisted with low wages, and low prices have often coexisted and now coexist with high wages. This is true even with respect to nominal wages, *i. e.*, to wages reckoned in money. It is still truer with respect to real wages, *i. e.*, to wages estimated in the food or other things which the workman buys with his money wages. Manufactured products may be divided into three elements — the labor, the raw material, and the capital required to bring these two together. If the price of the raw material is high, labor's reward must be low. If the use of money — or the rate of interest — is high, there is a corresponding decrease in the rewards of labor. But political economists have noticed during the past fifty years, as capital has accumulated, the rate of interest and the tendency of profits have been downward. As these elements in the cost of production decrease, there is a greater margin allowed for the reward of labor. Because of the vast improvement in mechanical industry and the wonderful progress made in transportation, the general condition of the laboring classes throughout the world has been advanced. In this advance the laborer of

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America has shared; but in so far as the tariff enhances the cost of the raw material used by the manufacturer, the wages of the American laborer suffer; in so far as the market of the American product is restricted, and the reward of capital caused thereby is augmented, the laborer pays the penalty.

In a speech before Congress in 1892, Hon. Elijah V. Brookshire said: "Fifteen years ago it would take two men all day to put barbs on three or four hundred pounds of wire. To-day two men receiving less wages per day, with improved machinery can put barb upon three or four thousand pounds of wire. So the labor-cost due to use of labor-saving machinery has been many fold reduced in every line of manufacture. Competition has its real application in the selling price of the finished product. Competition can never figure very seriously with reference to the first cost; but in the absence of trusts and combinations it is singularly important in the selling price of articles of the same line of goods manufactured by competing establishments. * * * Reciprocity is a sad commentary upon the home market theory, and is a virtual concession that markets have to be found for other bushels of wheat and other barrels of pork. So the protectionist has been driven from his former position. He has taken his stand upon new ground and behind new fortifications. The leading protectionists know that forty per cent of our people are directly interested in agriculture, and that something had to be done in

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order to appease the approaching storm of righteous indignation; that it was necessary to have a new stage-setting and change of scenery. * * * The true American policy, in my judgment, is to encourage trade with all the world; treat all nations with equal friendship; enter into entangling alliance with none; buy the things we need where they are produced cheapest, and sell our merchandise in the markets where our goods are dearest. Let us not, by law, seek to defeat the orderly and beneficient proceedings incident to natural conditions."

Concerning this mooted question of wages, Jacob Schoenhof, a widely read and quoted writer on political economy, thinks it is a fortunate sign of the times that we are at last beginning to recognize the all-important and redeeming fact that cheap labor by no means means cheap production; that, on the contrary, low cost of production and a high wage rate go hand in hand. In demonstration of this position, it is asserted that "the United States, with its vast resources, free laws, and extended territory, gives a field for employment of labor which no other country possesses, excepting, perhaps, the Australian colonies. The great stretch of unoccupied soil gives an opportunity for the satisfaction of what is one of the chief desires of man — to be possessor of a homestead upon his own land. From the widely distributed ownership of land radiate all other employments. A high wage rate and a higher standard of living are thereby insured. So long as the land is able to absorb,

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in times of business depression and collapse in manufacturing industries, the surplus labor of the towns, a lower wage rate, once reached, cannot permanently maintain. Labor, under all circumstances, instead of being always ready to submit to a pressing-down process by the exercise of the undue power of capital, as maintained by the old economists, under free laws and freedom of association maintains, and with slight variations, always regains, if temporarily lost, its old position and wage rate." Along this line of reasoning the contention is made that the inevitable results of a high rate of wages do not injure the employer, but fully as much benefit him as the working classes, because where the rate of day wages is high, the employer's first object is to economize employment. "The result is," declares Mr. Schoenhof, "that in no country is the organization of labor in mills and factories so complete as in the United States. In no country is the application of machinery carried to the extent to which it is carried in the United States. Here invention and improvement are always most readily welcome in the labor processes involved. Manufacturers introducing a change in manufactures have a machine built to accomplish what in other countries would be left to hand labor to bring about. Machinery, used to the limit of its life in Europe, is cast aside in America if only partially worn, or, while satisfactory in this respect, if an improvement has come out that can do the work quicker and consequently cheaper. The

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improvement introduced by one manufacturer is quickly adopted by his competitors. Labor-saving is the result, and a cheapening of production ensues, which is the due outcome of the high cost of day labor in the United States."

Now with reference to agriculture it is pertinent to give some of the principal free trade theories. If, in regulating our foreign and domestic trade relations, consideration were paid to our various industries in proportion to their relative importance, the claims of agriculture would be justly entitled to the first hearing, for farming employs a much larger number of our citizens than any other occupation, and its aggregate product is far greater than that of any other interest.

In all the tariff legislation of the past century the utmost concern has been expressed by statesmen for the welfare of the American farmer, and specious arguments have been constantly expounded by wily politicians to show how deeply interested they are in "protecting" agriculture. But the free traders insist that as a matter of fact, however ingeniously tariff laws have been framed, no sophistry has been able to cover up the knowledge that legislation ostensibly in the interest of the farmer invariably operates to the advantage of the manufacturer, and the farmer comes out at the little end. Protection, they aver, does not protect the farmer. On the other hand, it indirectly robs him, for while it practically adds nothing to the price he obtains for his produce,

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it compels him to pay higher prices for nearly every thing he has to buy. The prices of most of the products of the farm have never been so low as during recent high tariff times. Why is this? One cause manifestly is that the farmer has been studiously deluded with the home market humbug. He needs, more than any thing else, a home market in which he can purchase his supplies as cheaply as his competitors do. But protection denies this to him. Within the last thirty years the principal products of the farm have increased in volume to a far greater extent than the population. The importation of similar products has been comparatively small, for the obvious reason that no considerable market could be obtained here for natural products of which we had so large a surplus. How much greater could be made the home market for farm products? Very little. At the present time we make over ninety per cent of all the manufactured goods used in this country, and yet the employees of all our mills added to all the miners do not constitute ten per cent of our population. Therefore if the importation of agricultural products were absolutely prohibited, the manufacturing industries could not materially increase the American farmers' home market.

Before the Civil War no States were more thrifty in agriculture than New York, Connecticut and Massachusetts. These three States were foremost in building up and developing factories and protected industries. In no other section of the country have

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conditions been more favorable for the creation of a home market. The facts, however, show how delusive this idea has proved. The farming interest in Connecticut has steadily decreased and the agricultural towns are losing in wealth and population, although all of them are near the factories of protected manufactures. The Connecticut State Register shows that forty-five farming towns during the last twenty years have lost $4,636,700, or seventeen per cent, while the entire State has increased $78,274,016, or thirty-one per cent, during the same period. In Massachusetts, one of the greatest manufacturing States, the figures are still more emphatic. The value of farm lands in that State was $116,629,849 in 1875, and only $110,700,707 in 1885. The amount and value of farm products have also diminished. The State raised 4,767,000 bushels of potatoes in 1845 and but 3,584,000 bushels in 1885. Only half as much cheese was made in 1865 as in 1845, and considerably less was made in 1885. Only one-seventh as much beef was produced in 1885 as in 1865. The wool industry has rapidly dropped under a high tariff. The production in 1845 was 1,015,000 pounds; in 1865 it was 609,000 pounds and in 1885 it had fallen to 255,000 pounds. The price of wool also declined about thirty-five per cent during the decade between 1875 and 1885. New York, the greatest commonwealth in the Union in population and wealth, and once in agriculture, has made prodigious strides in prosperity and its wealth has enor-

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mously increased, but alas! agriculture has not received its fair share of the benefits. The statistician of the Department of Agriculture said in his report in 1887: "New York farmers are more in debt than they were ten years ago; the average depreciation in farming lands is fully one-third in ten years; probably one-third of the farms in the State would not sell for more than the cost of the buildings and other improvements; thirty per cent of the farms are mortgaged two-thirds of their estimated value.

In fourteen counties, including some of the best agricultural counties of the State, the State Assessors reported in 1889, that the value of farm lands was decreasing. "City property is increasing in value, while farming property is growing less and less valuable," said Assessor Wood; "I cannot see any way for it to improve and in a few years you will see more tenant farmers than any thing else."

If the financial condition of the Eastern farmer has been constantly becoming poorer, the advocate of high protection has always been ready with what he considers a satisfactory explanation, in the fact that this state of affairs has not been due to protection, but to the growing competition of the West. But this proves a poor defense, for the Great West is also a sufferer from protection. In February, 1889, Senator Paddock of Nebraska presented in the Senate an appeal in behalf of the Farmers' Alliance of Nebraska, in which it was stated that "The present economic condition of the State of Nebraska and of

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the country generally is anomalous, inasmuch as while the production of wealth is unprecedented, the condition of the producers of wealth is not improving, but is, on the contrary, retrograding. While no period has witnessed a greater aggregate increase of wealth than in the past twenty years, at the same time the farmers of Nebraska are sinking deeper and deeper in debt."

No local causes can account for the general decline in agriculture — the fault lies deeper. L. L. Polk, President of the National Farmers' Alliance, addressing the Senate Committee on Agriculture, said: "Struggle, toil, and suffer as he may, each recurring year has brought to him smaller reward for his labor, until to-day, surrounded by the most wonderful progress and development the world has ever witnessed, he is confronted and appalled with impending bankruptcy and ruin. We protest, and with all reverence, that it is not God's fault. We protest that it is not the farmers' fault. We believe and so charge solemnly and deliberately, that it is the fault of the financial system of the Government that has placed on agriculture an undue, unjust, and intolerable proportion of the burdens of taxation."

The free trader argues that a tax is levied to protect the American mill-owner from the competition of the American farmer. "The 15,000 protected mill-owners," says John De Witt Miller, "and the 2,000,000 farmers are fighting one another for the home market for manufactured goods — the mill-owners to get it all; the farmers for a share of it. If

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the mill-owners gain it all, the 2,000,000 farmers must abandon their land and find other work."

The farmer is producing more food than he can sell under the present system. There are thousands of hungry men and women in need of this food, but they cannot buy it because they cannot find work to earn the requisite money to buy it. The trouble is that the tariff on raw material is so high that we cannot make goods cheap enough to sell in competition with foreigners. Mr. Miller continues: "The policy of these high-tariff promoters is to have the people of this country forced by law to buy of them, so that, charging whatever they please, they can make a large profit on the comparatively small amount they can sell at high prices to our own people. The low tariff (or free raw materials) manufacturers, taking the opposite view, want as cheap raw materials as possible, so that they can make large quantities of goods at low cost, and, commanding the markets of the world, get large gains by immense sales — even at low profit margin. Both are intelligently selfish — the one in his narrowness, the other in his enterprise. Neither is studying the interests of the farmer. He must look out for himself. No one else will. So far he has supported by his vote the high-tariff policy. He is now feeling its results. The cost to him of protection and the dark outlook for his future are significant."

Free raw materials are urged on several grounds, as for instance, that they would decrease the average

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cost of transport of products to the markets where their price is fixed on account of the iron tariff. Free raw materials would decrease the cost to the farmer of all the manufactured articles he buys for his farm or for his family, and in effect would afford them higher prices for what they have to sell. They would enable American manufacturers to make goods costing less than any to be found elsewhere, thus securing the world's markets, and largely increasing their force of skilled labor.

That ardent free trader, Thomas G. Shearman, in a letter to Grover Cleveland, wrote: "Can there be the smallest doubt that if the protective duties were repealed and the tariff brought down to the level of 1860, American farmers and planters would find new customers in Europe to the full extent of $800,000,000 every year? There is none. Mr. Rusk (Secretary of Agriculture when this letter was written in 1892) has officially stated that there are 150,000,000 in Europe who never eat wheaten bread. Other protectionist orators have asserted, truly enough, that more than 150,000,000 Europeans never eat meat more than twice a week. Probably 50,000,000 do not eat a piece of meat, worthy of the name, more than twice a month. Is this because these poor people do not want bread and meat? Not at all. Nine-tenths of them would be glad of all which they could get. They are hindered only by their poverty; and their poverty is caused only by their inability to find customers for the things they pro-

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duce. Open markets for their products, and they will furnish boundless markets for American productions."

The claim is frequently advanced, too, that increased imports do not mean idle factories, and that foreign manufactures are imported almost exclusively for use in the higher branches of American manufactures, such as materials for the tailor, the dressmaker, the milliner, the shoemaker, the wagonmaker, and so on. One supporter of free trade has dryly remarked, that the protectionists have killed our shipping, so that we have to export enough more than we import to pay the Englishman for freight both ways.

Naturally the tariff reformers have in readiness as many objections to urge against protection as they have arguments in favor of their pet system. Among these objections is the salient one that protection gives special encouragement to certain industries at the expense and sacrifice of others and tends to build up unprofitable industries, thereby involving the discouragement of self-supporting ones. Again, that its principal burdens fall upon the wage-earners, to whom it increases the cost of living, thus reducing the purchasing power of their earnings and effectively reducing wages. It is directly opposed to and nullified by every advance of science, which either facilitates production or cheapens transportation, and in so far as it represents a principle, is the negative of positive enterprise, charity, humanity, and religion.

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Further, in the language of J. DeWitt Miller: "Its precepts are those against which our commercial instincts and our moral conscience so revolt, that our citizens in general of the highest standard, protectionists and free traders alike, are unconscious of any trespass in the violation of the tariff laws. By the extension of protection to raw materials, especially to such as are natural to the soil, lumber, coal, the ores of iron, copper, lead, tin, etc., the very gifts of Providence to this people, which should have assured to our fortunate citizens an ample supply at cheaper rates than to less favored nations, are made a curse instead of a blessing to the masses of our people. That our export trade, our only safety-valve against over-production and industrial paralysis is thereby obstructed. It is the chief breeder among us of the cursed trinity — the tariff, the trust, and the tramp. It accustoms every industry and every individual to expect from legislation such aid as he may convince it is necessary to make his business a profitable one, and thus instigates the most offensive form of communism. It makes the interest of a citizen in his Government that of a specially pecuniary one, which, in proportion to his wealth and claim, he promotes by fair means or foul, instead of a general patriotic one in line with the common weal. Even if a tariff were possible which should equitably and equally protect all of the industries of a country (and the objection that the result would simply be to leave each where it would be, if not interfered with,

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be waived), there is no prospect of such a tariff being enacted, or any prospect that any tariff enacted will not be constructed by private greed and made law by log-rolling connivance. And lastly, if other obstacles to a perfect tariff were done away with, it would be impossible to apply the protective principle, except upon the self-destructive theory, that its result is to sacrifice certain sections of the country to the welfare of certain other portions. In the very nature of things a tariff is bounded by natural lines. But New York, New Jersey, Ohio, and Pennsylvania are more identical than are any other States in the world, in the nature of population, the character of their wonderfully varied products, and the extent of their mutual trade. So that we have here the very conditions, which, were each State to consult its own interests, the same protectionists must insist were fatal to its prosperity."

Such is the most forceful arraignment yet brought against protection, and such are some of the countless arguments educed by the lovers of free trade. The reader, however, should carefully peruse the succeeding chapter on "The Protection Point of View" before making certain in his own judgment and consciousness which is the preferable system for the United States.

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The Protection Point of View.

The first definite argument in favor of a pronounced protective system was enunciated in this country by Alexander Hamilton, and it has never been stated better since by the many statesmen and orators and writers who have been identified with it. Some of the reasons given by Mr. Hamilton in support of his recommendations were these: "The embarrassments which have obstructed the progress of our external trade have led to serious reflections on the necessity of enlarging the sphere of our domestic commerce. The restrictive regulations which, in foreign markets, abridge the vent for the increasing supply of our agricultural produce, serve to beget an earnest desire that a more extensive demand for that surplus may be created at home, and the complete success which has rewarded manufacturing enterprise in some valuable branches, conspiring with the promising symptoms which attend some less mature essays in others, justify a hope that the obstacles to a growth of this species of industry are less formidable than they were apprehended to be, and that it may not be difficult to find in its further extension a full indemnification for any external disadvantages which are, or may be experienced, as well as an accession of resources favorable to national independence and safety. * * * If the system of perfect liberty to industry and commerce were the prevailing system of nations, the arguments

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which dissuade a country in the predicament of the United States from the zealous pursuit of manufactures would, doubtless, have great force. But the system which has been mentioned is far from characterizing the general policy of nations. The prevalent one has been regulated by an opposite spirit. The consequence of it is that the United States are, to a certain extent, in the situation of a country precluded from foreign commerce. They can, indeed, without difficulty, obtain from abroad the manufactured supplies of which they are in want, but they experience numerous and very injurious impediments to emission and vent of their own commodities. Nor is this the case in reference to a single foreign nation only. The regulations of several countries with which we have the most extensive intercourse throw serious obstacles in the way of the principal staples of the United States. In such a position of things the United States cannot exchange with Europe on equal terms, and the want of reciprocity would render them the victim of a system which would induce them to confine their views to agriculture and refrain from manufactures. A constant and increasing necessity on their part for the commodities of Europe and only a partial and occasional demand for their own in return, could not but expose them to a state of impoverishment compared with the opulence to which their political and natural advantages authorize them to aspire."

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Certain men of influence contended that Mr. Hamilton's suggestion for the extension of manufactures was unwise, because agriculture was the most productive industry, and, as the population was so small, it would be wrong to divert any labor from the pursuit of farming which would thereby suffer. These opponents also maintained that there was not sufficient capital in the country to successfully engage in manufacturing; that in any event we could not compete with Europe, and finally, if manufacturing were established, it would necessarily result in monopoly. Mr. Hamilton refuted these arguments by showing the advantages that would accrue from diversified labor. He demonstrated conclusively that agriculture would not suffer, but be benefited by the introduction of manufactures, which would furnish a broader field for enterprise and attract immigrants to our shores, thus increasing our population. The latter result would enlarge the market for our home products. He argued in favor of a home market as being more reliable than a foreign one, and he held that it should be the first object of our national policy to supply the people with all the means of subsistence from their own soil, and that they should establish manufactures in order to procure from the same source the raw materials necessary for their own fabrics.

When John Adams succeeded to the Presidency the country had already begun to experience some of the benefits of its tariff system. Agriculture was

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prospering and commerce rapidly increasing. New manufacturing enterprises were springing up and the ship-building industry was beginning to get a foothold in several Atlantic States.

Previous to 1791 the trade of the country had been in any thing but a satisfactory condition. For the seven years preceding that date our imports exceeded our exports by over $52,000,000. Shortly afterward a change began to take place and within a few years the trade figures began to show a substantial balance in favor of the United States, which they have happily continued to retain, with few exceptions, to the present hour. For the seven years between 1795 and 1801, our exports exceeded our imports by more than $89,000,000. This showing was naturally distasteful to England. She saw the possibilities of serious inroads upon her own commerce in the growing importance of American trade. American merchants had profited to a certain extent by the liberal policy in operation during the war period in Europe, but on the return of peace, in 1801, restrictive system was revived in Europe. The peace was of short duration, and when hostilities were renewed, American commerce became so seriously affected that it was found necessary to adopt retaliatory measures. In 1805 the importation of British manufactures was prohibited; a few years later the Berlin decrees of Napoleon, and the orders in council of England, practically closed the ports of Europe to neutral vessels, and American ship-owners received a great set

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back. Some measure of relief was obtained by the embargo laws of 1808, which were followed by the non-intercourse laws. The latter gave considerable impetus to American manufactures, because the people, being prevented from obtaining European supplies, were forced to make most of their goods at home. Manufacturing industries were rendered more secure by the doubling of all import duties, which was done as a war measure.

Passing over the disastrous Low-Tariff Act of 1816, we come to the Protective Tariff of 1824, a sadly needed relief measure, which proved beneficial to all classes. In a speech, delivered in 1888, Hon. James G. Blaine said of this act: "The change was as great as was wrought in the financial condition of the United States when Hamilton smote the rock of public credit and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth."

In 1828 still higher protection was imposed. By this time the South had begun to squirm. Mr. Calhoun, defeated in his presidential aspirations, had changed his mind in regard to the merits of protection and took his stand in defense of slavery and free trade. Then succeeded the Compromise Tariff Bill of 1833, with its downward sliding scale of ten years. In its wake came financial calamities and the frightful panic of 1837. The farming interest suffered even more than it had during the period between 1816–1824. Men were either out of work or slaving for twenty-five cents a day or less. In 1840

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the people defeated Van Buren and put in General Harrison. "The fruit of the Whig triumph was the Protective Tariff of 1842 which held the same relation to the Compromise Tariff of 1833 that the Protective Tariff of 1824 held to the Tariff of 1816. After the act of 1842 industrial pursuits quickened. Robert J. Walker's Free Trade Tariff Bill of 1846 was placed upon the statute book by the casting vote of Vice-President Dallas. Then ensued the free trade period, which is referred to with such swelling pride by free trade votaries. It is true that a remarkable decade of prosperity followed the adoption of the Walker Tariff, but we must look beyond that measure for the real and unsuspected cause of those good times. Soon after its passage our Government declared war against Mexico. Our arms and military munitions were very scanty at the time and new supplies had to be provided and paid for. This of itself put in circulation more than $100,000,000 throughout the nation. Another adventitious circumstance in stimulating trade was the terrible famine in Ireland, which created a strenuous demand for all our surplus grain, potatoes, etc., the large proceeds of which went largely to our agricultural population.

The European revolutions, beginning in 1848, were especially advantageous to the American manufacturer as importations greatly diminished, and thus was created an immense demand for. our goods. Near the close of 1849 another factor enhanced the

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national welfare, namely, the discovery of gold in California, which we had acquired only a few months previously from Mexico. For six years or more streams of wealth poured from the Pacific slope at the rate of not less than $55,000,000 a year. Our apparent prosperity was also augmented by the Crimean war, which gave us a market for our agricultural surplus at advanced prices.

But when all these aids ceased after ten years of free trade, our prosperity, which had been purely accidental, suddenly waned, and in the spring of 1857 Congress passed a brief tariff act lowering the duties still further, so that our people had a tariff that brought us in direct competition with the low price labor of Europe. Stupendous panic came in the same year as the direct result. Then followed four years of "rocky times," and in truth the country did not revive until after the election of Abraham Lincoln and the enactment of the Morrill Tariff, which was the foundation upon which has been reared the present tariff system of the country. To quote from Mr. Blaine: "At no time in our country's history has the United States ever recovered from the financial depression caused by a low tariff until a protective tariff was enacted to take its place. The Tariff of 1824 relieved the long suffering that followed from the hasty lowering of duties in the Tariff of 1816. The Tariff of 1842 revived the country after the compromise and destructive Tariff of 1833, and the Tariff of 1861 introduced a prosperous era after the tre-

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mendous convulsion of 1857, which was caused by the perfidiously enacted Tariff of 1846."

What are the advantages of a protective tariff to the labor and industries of the United States? Undoubtedly, had we not early in our national history adopted the protective system, there would be now an undue proportion of agriculturalists, with few, if any, important manufacturing interests. In such circumstances we could not make much of a showing of civilization and advancement. Retrogression would be wretchedly evident everywhere throughout this broad land.

We seldom hear any suggestions as to what shall be prescribed to correct the alleged evils of the protective system, which, it is claimed by free traders, confers all of its benefits upon a privileged class. This is simply preposterous, and proof is accessible on every hand that protective tariffs have served to distribute commercial opportunities among the whole people, diffused labor, developed our marvellous resources, and encouraged our multiform industries.

The largest percentage of our exports is furnished by agriculture. But it must be remembered that the foreign market is limited, because foreign competition is strong and constantly on the increase. The wheat of Russia, Australia, India, and South America competes in Europe with the wheat of the United States. And this fact suggests the unanswerable proposition that, if all the labor and capital be exerted on the land, all our agricultural surplus can

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never find a market. It is obvious that the overproduction in agricultural produce is due to the employment of too much labor and capital in agriculture. But these conditions have a tendency to adjust themselves, or, at least, men are coming to understand better than ever before, that when an agricultural glut occurs, the wise thing to do is to divert their attention and energies to something else.

The tariff has enabled the labor and capital of the nation to produce the maximum of wealth. Who of us does not wonder at the extent of our manufacturing industries? "Were Alexander Hamilton, the prophet of protection, to appear among us to-day and make a second report on American manufacture, he would behold a development of which he never dreamed. He would see the seventeen branches of manufactures that struggled for existence in his day increased in less than a century to more than three hundred; he would see the vast laboratories of nature explored and the elements turned to the service of man; he would see on all our rivers those grand palaces of the arts which fill the air with the hum of myriad wheels. Astounded, he would survey those busy hives of industry — now the rivals, and soon to be the victors of their European prototypes — Paterson, the American Lyons; Trenton, the American Burslem; Waltham, the American Geneva; and Philadelphia, the American Manchester."

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"Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay," sang Tennyson. We are inclined to say better ten years of the United States than fifty years of Europe, thanks to the triumphant protective system.

The price of a foreign article is increased by a protective tariff to the amount of the increased cost of production of the domestic article. By reason of the tariff, therefore, the same price governs the foreign and domestic article, thus rendering prices stable for the home producer, and furnishing the whole amount denied to the home consumer. On this mooted point the Hon. George F. Edmunds has produced a succinct argument. "If," he says, "the profits of the foreign manufacturer or producer are essentially diminished by customs duties, and are essentially increased by the diminution or abolition thereof, then, so far, the money obtained from them is not by taxation of our own people, but by taxation of the foreigners; and if the surplus revenues are to be reduced by the abolition or reduction of the customs duties, so far they are reduced, not for the benefit of our own people, but to the benefit of people of other countries who are the exporters of goods to our markets. This is well illustrated by our experience in the abolition of the duties upon tea and coffee in the year 1872. Before this abolition there had come into the Treasury many millions of dollars a year as duties from these two articles (in 1870–1 there were over twenty-two millions), neither

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of which was produced in the United States, and so it was supposed that these articles would be cheapened to the consumers, and that no injury could be done to any domestic interest by their abolition. And this was partly true, so far as its direct effect was concerned, but there ceased to come into the common treasury from fifteen to twenty millions of dollars a year, while the consumers of tea and coffee paid substantially the same or higher prices for these things than they did before, and the net result was that our Treasury gave up to foreign producers and operators that number of millions of money, without any advantage whatever to us, except that the Treasury was by that sum depleted." Mr. Edmunds further remarks that it seems to be clear that it is not true, in a general sense, that customs duties are, as a whole, or in the greater part a tax or burden upon the domestic consumer. Nearly all of the principal products of the United States are protected and every one interested in them is benefited by such protection. The agriculturist is protected in respect of his cattle, his wheat, his oats, his butter, etc., just as his neighbor, the manufacturer, is protected in respect of iron or his cotton cloth, and each, therefore, contributes in due proportion to the common good of all by the employment of all manufacturing resources near to the places of the production of the wool, the cotton and the iron which furnish the materials and furnish useful occupations to large numbers of the population, who, in their turn, consume the products of the farm sub-

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stantially at the places of origin. The statement is frequently made, but it is erroneous, that the tariff develops the manufacturing industries at the expense of agriculture and commerce. Has not the tariff given to American agriculture a better market at home than it could possibly find abroad? Does not the factory remove from the soil those superfluous farmers whose labor causes a glut, and results not in wealth but in waste? Crawford D. Hening cleverly and logically argues that under protection the farmer exchanges his produce with the domestic instead of the foreign mechanic. This is manifestly to the farmer's advantages, for the domestic mechanic consumes the manufactures of other domestic mechanics, who in their turn consume the farmers' produce, and thus increase the home market. But the foreign mechanic consumes foreign manufactures, and that confers no additional benefit on the farmer. Nobody ever thinks of disputing that the tariff has been mainly the mainstay of our gigantic internal commerce. The railroad mileage in the United States is now equal to that of all the rest of the world. Many other references could be made to the mammoth proportions that have been attained by our domestic trade.

The tariff has done much to ameliorate the condition of the workingman from what it was a century ago. In preceding pages statistics were furnished which show that the general rate of wages was lower by one-half than at present.

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Senator S. M. Cullom, in a magazine article, has gone so far as to assert that the farmer has received more benefit than any one else from protection. In the first place his competition has been very appreciably reduced by the tariff, which has induced many people to engage in manufacturing and mining instead of farming. Nor is the farmer robbed for the benefit of the protected manufacturer, as the free traders fallaciously assert. With few exceptions, there is no single article which the farmer consumes which is not cheaper than it was under the revenue tariff, and cheaper than it would be to-day if it were not for the development of home industries by protective tariffs. His food, his clothing, his household goods and furniture, his house, his barn, his implements, tools and fences, are all cheaper, while every thing he produces sells for more and his land has trebled or quadrupled in value.

Now, as to the question whether free raw materials be advantageous to the labor and industries of the United States much may be said in the negative. The basis of our industry may be formed of materials which are the finished product of another. Thus, cotton, the raw material of the manufacturer of cottons, is the finished product of the Southern farmer. "Lumber is the finished product of the lumberman, and trees in the forest his raw material."

Henry C. Carey, the distinguished American economist, gives the following definition: "All the products of the earth are in turn finished commodity

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and raw material. Coal and ore the finished commodity of the miner, but the raw material of pig iron. The latter is the finished commodity of the smelter, yet only the raw material of the puddler and of him who rolls the bar. The bar is again the raw material of sheet iron, and that, in turn, becomes the raw material of the nail and spike."

Certain it is that if the United States pursued a free trade policy in raw materials, the only way it could hold her own markets would be to undersell her cheap land and cheap labor foreign competitors. This competition would not be solely confined to grain and vegetable products, but would extend to animals and their products. The materials of manufacture, such as the wool-growing industry, would be similarly affected. With free raw wool, the labor employed in this industry would be forced into other lines of activity. Likewise would capital thus employed seek other fields of investment. The effect of free raw materials upon our mining industries and the labor engaged therein, would be not only detrimental but destructive in the long run. The reason we are unable to compete successfully, in spite of our extensive mineral resources, with other mineral producing countries without the aid of a tariff is this: "More than half the cost of production of coal, coke and iron is in the wages paid labor. The average wages of those thus employed in Great Britain are $1.02 per working day of nine hours. In the United States they are $1.64 for an equal

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number of hours. This is an advantage of more than sixty per cent in the labor cost alone in favor of Great Britain. With open competition our mining industries could not thrive unless conditions were equalized by reducing our wages to the European level. Such reduction would not give to our mining industries greater prosperity than they now enjoy, and the effect upon wage-earners is too apparent to need mention." So far as free raw materials and commerce are concerned, there would doubtless result an increased activity in foreign shipping. Less than twenty per cent of the total tonnage of the United States is engaged in the carrying trade, the major portion of it being engaged in the coastwise and fishery trade. The great purpose of protection is to so diversify the four chief branches of industry that each will attain to its highest development and provide for our twenty or more millions of workers equal opportunities of production. It has been shown, time and time again, that this cannot be satisfactorily accomplished under free trade auspices. According to that able thinker, Homer B. Dibbell, "those parts of the United States which have the most varied industry show a higher annual income to the farmer, and greater returns to farm laborers. Some sections of our country, notably the south, in which a single industry has been dominant, have not acquired the wealth which has come to other sections, nor is the wealth so widely distributed. These sections, with rich mineral depos-

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its and extensive forests, have clung to agriculture and neglected their other resources. Those who look for a new South, if they find it at all, will find it upon the basis of a new industrial organization, brought about largely by the protection afforded to her raw materials." A low standard of living is the inevitable sequence of low wages, and low wages are the necessary outcome of free trade, and we have but to point to England in illustration of these iron-clad facts. We produce somewhat more food products than we consume, and furnish the greater part of the raw materials of manufacture.

It is well enough, in view of this, to admit free the raw materials which we do not, or practically cannot, produce, and which do not displace our American products. But "free competing raw materials can confer no advantage upon the labor and industries of the United States which are not counterbalanced by attendant disadvantages." The farmer's products are themselves raw materials; hence, agriculture would not be enhanced by free raw materials. Nor would they help the other great industries for reasons suggested above. The permanent prosperity of the United States requires a policy which will afford labor "the largest possibilities of varied employment," and give to our raw materials such protection as will be sufficient to meet the competition of foreign countries that possess superior facilities for cheap production.

The free trader denies the protectionist claim that production, both in quality and quantity, is increased

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by diversity of employment. He also denies that by the laws of trade, as production is increased, the commodity is cheapened, "either directly, by a decline in price, or indirectly, by an increased purchasing power of other commodities. It is just as difficult for him to concede that protection, while tending to develop and maintain this diversity of industry, at the same time increases capital and wages. Yet all these results have been verified in the experience of nations that have really tested the principles of protection. John Stuart Mill's famous declaration: "That a country will seldom have a productive agriculture unless it has a large town population," has evoked from Mr. C. D. Todd the pertinent query: "How can a country have a large town population without diversified industries?" Mr. Todd adds that "an increase in the number who till the soil cannot increase the value of a bushel of corn. Enlarging the acreage has not made agriculture more profitable. It has only increased the amount of product. This increase diminishes demand and, in the same degree, its exchangeable value. This value becomes zero as the increase of the product becomes unremuneratively large. The only way to restore value is to decrease production or increase demand. Evidently the latter would be the wiser alternative."

The wide-awake protectionist firmly adheres to the belief that the tariff plays no part in the creation of monopolies and trusts. On the contrary, he is convinced that the tariff, in increasing the sources of

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supply, renders more difficult the existence of monopolies and corners. Singularly, England, ever loud in her boasts of being a free-trade nation, raises next, after the United States, more revenue by her tariff than any other country in the world. In short, England's vast commercial intercourse and prosperity were founded on the most exacting kind of protection; which she pugnaciously maintained until 1846, when she repealed her corn laws and adopted a tariff for revenue, which system it is her delight to call free trade. A rather ingenious sort of shrift was this, but England is nothing if not diplomatic. Hoodwinking the other nations of the earth is her settled policy, and if this does not work, she often tries intimidation and bullying. The Government of the United States understands John Bull perfectly, and is not in the least alarmed whenever he commences to bluster.

Coming back to the relation of the tariff to the farmer, the only sensible course seems to lie in the direction of more protection for him instead of less. The agricultural industry is the foundation of all other industries. It should, therefore, be in the most intimate sympathy with them to the end that the fullest measure of mutual benefit may accrue. Cheap labor has been and is the curse of Europe, and every American citizen should deem it his legitimate duty and right to ward off as well as lies in his power such a condition among his countrymen. We cannot afford to degrade labor to the low stand-

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ard of wages that prevail across the Atlantic. In protecting home industries we protect labor in several vital ways. Hon. Thomas H. Dudley of New Jersey, formerly United States consul at Liverpool, England, has been favored with exceptional opportunities to study this subject in its most complicated aspects, and the following is his summing up: "We now import only about eight per cent of the manufactured commodities we consume or use in this country. Let Congress pass such laws as will induce our people to manufacture here at home this eight per cent of manufactured commodities which we now import from Europe, and the effect will be to draw from agriculture a portion of the labor now engaged in it and thereby to this extent to lessen the quantity of agricultural products, and at the same time to increase the home market sufficiently to consume all our surplus products. We should then be no longer dependent upon Europe for the sale of our surplus agricultural products, as we now are, and London would not then, as she does now, fix the price at which our farmers shall sell their wheat. The price would be determined here at home and regulated, as it is with all other commodities, by the supply and demand, without regard to the competition of India or any other country."

The Bill of 1894.

We now come to the consideration of the latest period of Democratic ascendency in national affairs

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and the most extraordinary legislation which characterized it. As has been shown in preceding pages, the tariff history of this country from 1816 down to 1861 is but a chronicle of successive changes of policy, many of them radical and not a few most sporadic, varying with the party in power. In all the earlier years our tariff legislation was influenced very largely by the attitude of European nations. England, especially, having good cause to check the prosperity of alien nations, which might prove dangerous rivals in the markets of the world, lost no opportunity to thwart, if possible, every effort made toward the successful establishment of manufacturing industries here, and either to cripple our agriculture or lay it under contribution to *herself*. Other nations, too, were for a time, but little more liberal in their treatment.

But in spite of every hindrance and discouragement, manufacturing gained a secure foothold, and agriculture survived and eventually thrived. In those years, however, when the country was sparsely settled, the few interests of much importance were so exclusively confined to certain localities, that tariff legislation was distinctively sectional in its aim and effect. Parties oftentimes held their control by such narrow majorities that, in order to hold the votes of important States, their interests would be highly "protected;" such a policy resulting in the imposition of a heavy tax upon less favored localities. Then the ever-recurring changes with the next move

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frequently robbed the "protected" States of the benefits previously conferred, and *other interests and other localities received consideration.*

It is little wonder, in view of the vascillation and discrimination which prevailed for so many years, that our country made but comparatively slow progress in the commercial world for a considerable time. Not till after the late civil war was the nation committed to a policy which bid fair to be permanent, a policy that, instead of being sectional, was national in its scope, recognizing the community of interest of the entire United States. For thirty years that policy dominated all our tariff legislation, and no one can deny that its operation marked an era of prosperity never equaled in the history of the world.

The Democratic party, in its platform adopted by its National Convention at Chicago in 1892, declared most emphatically and explicitly that the government "has no right to impose and collect customs duties except for the purposes of revenue only."

When Congress assembled in regular session in December, as had been anticipated, the South was in almost complete control. In the House, the Hon. Charles F. Crisp of Georgia was the Speaker, and in the make-up of committees, the chairmanship of nearly every important one was conferred upon a southern member. The Hon. William L. Wilson of West Virginia was made chairman of the committee on ways and means, upon which devolved the duty of framing a Democratic tariff measure.

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Mr. Wilson and his confrères began their labor, and after the lapse of about two months, presented a bill which largely reduced the average duties imposed by the McKinley law, increased a few, and materially enlarged the "free list." This bill, after a brief debate, was passed by the House on February 1, 1894.

The bill went to the Senate for concurrence, and here it was destined to hang for several weary months, while the people awaited the outcome with the utmost anxiety.

The Senate passed its amended bill July 3, providing for a material increase in some of the rates proposed in the original bill. Then began a struggle, the like of which had not been witnessed before in many years, if ever. The House was indisposed to accept the amendments adopted by the Senate and. the latter body was firm in its determination not to yield. A conference committee was finally appointed by both houses, with a view to ascertaining if there was any possibility of a compromise. After holding several sessions and indulging in extended discussions, the committee was obliged to report its inability to agree, the Senate members having refused to recede from the position taken by their house.

The House, however, continued its deliberations, hoping that the Senate might be induced to modify in some degree its most extraordinary demands. But all to no purpose. Senator Arthur P. Gorman of Maryland was at the helm, and held his party associates with a firm hand. He finally notified the

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House that it was "the Senate bill or nothing," and at last the House, seeing that further contention would be useless, surrendered, and on August 13th, concurred in the Senate amendments. From his known hostility to the measure as passed, it was believed by many that President Cleveland would exercise his prerogative and veto it, but ten days elapsed and no message came, so by constitutional limitation the bill became a law, the President not having signed it.

What were the important features of this new law? What were the changes which the people had to face?

In the first place it put on the free list articles which paid a duty under the McKinley law, and which were imported in 1893 to the value of $41,398,000. It is needless to say that agriculture was made to bear the burden of the greater part of this loss of revenue. Nearly one-half of the free list, or to be exact, $18,496,553.92 was taken from wool, the growing of which had become, under reasonable protection, one of the most important agricultural industries. Lumber figures a loss of $10,198,391, and other articles bring the reductions on products of the farm and forest up to $31,937,750. The balance of the free list, $9,460,249, consisted principally of manufactured articles, though painting, statuary and other works of art figured at $2,261,766.

The reduction of the duties on woolen goods, based on the importation of 1893, was in round num-

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bers, $19,000,000. Nearly two-thirds of this amount, or over $12,000,000, came from duties on wool plushes, embroideries, Axminster carpets, fine cloths and dress goods of the finer grades. Some of the other reductions were: On silk dress goods, plushes, velvets, etc., $2,720,605; on laces and embroideries, $1,537,890; on china ware, $2,233,987; on paintings and statuary, $432,657; on ostrich feathers and flowers, $265,330; on kid gloves, $875,000; on pearl buttons, $224,600; opium for smoking, $400,073; on liquors, $1,232,950; on leaf tobacco and Havana cigars, $1,432,902, as based on the importations of 1893.

While the tariff bill of 1894 was under discussion in Congress for the greater part of six long months, "the Sugar Schedule" absorbed more attention than any other feature; in fact, nearly as much as all the remainder of the bill, notwithstanding that "free raw materials" had been uppermost in the minds of all tariff reformers since the election of 1892.

The first provision of the sugar schedule of the "Wilson bill" which passed the House in 1894, was a repeal of the bounty provision, and in order that the sugar producers should be promptly cut off from any benefit they might derive under the old tax, during the current year, the House took care to specify that the repeal was "*to take effect July* 1, 1894, *and thereafter it shall be unlawful to issue any license to produce sugar or to pay any bounty for the production of sugar of any kind under said act.*"

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The Wilson bill also placed all sugars and molasses on the free list, but placed a duty of 30 per cent *ad valorem* on confectionery, and 15 per cent on glucose.

The Senate readily agreed to the repeal of the bounty provision, but refused to let in sugar free, and passed an amendment imposing a duty of 40 per cent *ad valorem* on raw sugars, which it was considered would furnish abundant "protection" to American sugar producers. But, in addition to this, the "sugar senators" succeeded in securing a practical bounty to the Sugar Trust in the shape of an extra duty of one-eighth of a cent a pound on all sugars above No. 16 Dutch standard and all discolored sugars, and an additional one-tenth of a cent on imports from bounty-paying countries. The Senate amendment further stipulated than the treaty made with Hawaii in 1875 was not to be abrogated or in anywise impaired.

On molasses, testing above forty degrees and not above fifty-six degrees, the duty was placed at two cents per gallon, and, if testing above fifty-six degrees, four cents. Confectionery of all kinds was put at 35 per cent *ad valorem*, and saccharine 25 per cent.

It was the above provisions which the House at first refused to agree to, but which, after the prolonged struggle in July and August, 1894, it was finally compelled to acquiesce in, and which then became a part of the bill, as passed.

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Free Wool.

No provisions of our tariff laws in recent years have been of more vital interest to farmers generally than those which affected wool, the production of which had become one of our greatest industries. Under the protection afforded by the law of 1890, and previous tariffs for some years, the number of sheep and the wool production had been steadily increasing. In 1892 there were nearly 47,000,000 sheep in the country, and the total wool clip amounted to 364,000,000 pounds, an increase of 92,792,000 pounds over the production of 1891.

By the law of 1890 "wools of the merino blood, immediate or remote, down-clothing wools and wools of like character with the foregoing, including those usually imported from Buenos Ayres, New Zealand, Australia, Cape of Good Hope, Russia, Great Britain, Canada and elsewhere," paid a duty of eleven cents per pound.

Upon "combing wools, Canada long wools, and hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals," the duty was twelve cents per pound, while "Donskoi, native South American, Cordova, Valparaiso, native Smyrna, Russian camel's hair, and wools usually imported from Turkey, Greece, Egypt and Syria, valued at thirteen cents or less per pound," were made dutiable at thirty-two cents per pound.

The law of 1894 placed all wools, etc., as specified in the above classes, *on the free list.* The anticipation of this act had begun to have a marked effect

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some time before the measure was passed. On the first of January, 1893, the value of the sheep in the United States was estimated at $125,909,264. On January 1, 1894, the total value had fallen to $89,186,110, a decrease of over $36,000,000. The number of sheep in the country fell off during the year preceding the passage of the bill from 47,000,000 to 45,000,000. What was the cause of this? There had been at that time no change in the tariff. The farmers knew, however, that soon there was to be an end to protection. The tariff reformers had promised free raw materials, and the prospect of an enormous influx of foreign wool materially reduced the price in the home market, and naturally the value of the wool bearing animal was correspondingly depreciated.

The object of placing wool upon the free list was, of course, to enable American manufacturers to compete with foreign manufacturers to better advantage. But on nearly every article made wholly or in part of wool, the duty was also reduced, amounting in the aggregate to about $19,000,000, which was to the benefit of the foreign manufacturer; as, for example, woolen and worsted cloths, etc., valued at not more than 30 cents per pound, paid, under the law of 1890, 33 cents per pound, and 40 per cent *ad valorum;* the new law made it 40 per cent only. On ready made clothing, etc., taxed by McKinley at 49½ cents per pound, and 60 per cent *ad valorem*, the duty was put down to 50 per cent. Knit fabrics (not

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including wearing apparel), shawls made wholly or in parts of wool, etc., not exceeding 30 cents per pound in value, paid 35 per cent under the new law, while 33 cents per pound and 40 per cent was charged under the old law. Blankets, wool hats and flannels, for underwear, valued at 30 cents a pound, or less, which previously paid 16½ cents, and 30 per cent, were reduced to 25 per cent. Ladies' cloaks, dolmans, jackets, etc., paid 50 per cent *ad valorem*, as against 49½ cents a pound, and 60 per cent under the McKinley law. A still greater reduction was made on webbings, bindings, suspenders, dress trimmings, laces, embroideries, buttons, nettings and various other articles made wholly or in part of wool.

Upon imported carpets of all kinds there was a reduction averaging from 25 to 35 per cent, and on some much more.

In fact, under the new law practically the whole woolen schedule was revolutionized, and this was little more than what was to be expected in view of the provision for free wool. In the entire list of articles which have been the subject of consideration by our tariff makers none shows so marked a departure from the policy which had been pursued for many years as wool. Not only has it been "protected" to a greater or less extent ever since the Rebellion, but even under the Democratic tariff of 1846 a considerable duty was placed upon it.

At the time of the passage of the Law of 1894, there were in New York city alone about 125 bonded

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warehouses, estimated to contain 1,500,000 packages of goods, valued at $40,000,000, upon which duties amounting to $30,000,000 remained unpaid. Included in this was 13,180,808 yards of wool dress goods of the import value of $2,434,364. In addition to this it was reported that there were several ships laden with foreign wool lying at the doors of our ports of entry, patiently awaiting the day when they could enter their cargoes duty free.

Other Textiles.

The reductions on other textile materials and manufactures thereof were not generally so radical as on woolens, but still show a marked decrease from those prevailing under the McKinley law. Take cottons, for instance. On unbleached cotton cloth, not exceeding fifty threads to the square inch, the rate was made 1 cent per yard where it had been 2 cents; bleached cloth of the same texture was reduced from 2½ cents to 1¼. On similar goods of a finer texture and heavier weight the reduction was somewhat less. Articles of wearing apparel, handkerchiefs, etc., of cotton, which had paid 50 per cent, were placed at 40 per cent. Cotton thread, on which the old duty had been 7 cents per dozen spools, was reduced to 5½ cents, and upon cotton yarn of various textures the changes were about the same.

In the line of flax, hemp, jute and manufactures of the same, *ad valorem* duties were substituted largely for specific, but a reduction was effected just

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the same on most articles. Hemp and jute carpetings were changed from 6 cents per square yard to 20 per cent. Oil cloths were cut down from 40 per cent to 25; cables, cordage, etc., changed from 1½ cents per pound to 10 per cent; tapes reduced from 50 per cent to 25; laces, edgings, etc., made of jute, flax or cotton, from 60 per cent to 50. On all manufactures of flax, hemp and jute, valued at 5 cents per pound or less, the McKinley duty was 2 cents per pound. This was changed to 35 per cent.

Silks and silk goods suffered much less than other goods of greater demand among people of moderate means. Silk clothing, knit goods, handkerchiefs, laces, etc., were cut from 60 per cent to 50. Silk velvets had paid $1.50 per pound and 15 per cent; only the latter was taken off. Braids, binding, fringes, suspenders and beltings were only dropped from 50 per cent to 45, and other manufactures of silk the same.

Farm Products.

Aside from wool, the so-called agricultural schedule will have a greater interest for our farming population than any other portion of the law. Before Congress met in December, 1893, it was a foregone conclusion that wool was bound to go on the "free list," and that other "raw materials" were also to assist in "removing the obstacles to cheaper home production," but the farmers were hardly prepared to believe that even a "tariff reform Congress would remove nearly every vestige of protection from all the

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farm produced." Conceding some justification for "free wool," on the ground of "greater benefits to the greater number," even though they anticipated ruin for the native wool grower, they could not see the necessity of such a radical reduction in duties shown in the agricultural schedule.

Prices of all farm products had been comparatively low, some, in fact, so low as to warrant the abandonment of the crop. Cereals and certain other crops were raised in such abundance as to admit of a considerable export. In spite of this, foreign countries have competed, to some extent, with our farmers on their own ground, and under a reduced tariff, a greater competition was to be anticipated.

Corn, oats and buckwheat, each of which paid 15 cents per bushel under the law of 1890, rye, which paid 10 cents, and wheat, which paid 25 cents, were all put at 20 per cent *ad valorem* in the law of 1894. Barley, previously dutied at 30 cents per bushel, was placed at 30 per cent.

Potatoes suffered a cut from 25 cents a bushel to 15 cents; beans and onions both from 40 cents to 20. The duty on butter and cheese was dropped from 6 cents per pound to 4, and on eggs from 5 cents a dozen to 3. Cabbages, which had paid 3 cents each, were put on the free list. Honey was reduced from 20 cents a gallon to 10, and hops from 15 cents per pound to 8. There was also a 50 per cent reduction on hay and straw, the former going from $4 per ton to $2 and the latter from 30 per cent *ad valorem* to

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15. For several of these articles Canadian farmers had succeeded, even under the old tariff, in securing quite a market, and some, notably potatoes and onions, were imported in some quantities from other foreign countries.

In the line of meat products, the variation was perhaps less marked, and of less importance, as the importation cuts no material figure.

Free Lumber.

One of the significant changes of the law of 1894, and one affecting a great national interest was the placing of the entire lumber schedule upon the free list. Lumbering, while carried on to a certain extent in many States, became an industry of enormous proportions in the northwestern States bordering on the great lakes. In Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota it involved the investment of many millions of dollars and furnished employment to nearly the entire population of vast sections of territory. In Maine, also, there has been a large output of lumber for many years. But Canada, with its immense timber tracts and facilities for cheap lumbering, had maintained a sharp competition with the lumber interests along much of our northern border. Naturally, then, our lumbermen looked upon the entire removal of duties as an invitation to such greater inroads upon their market as would imperil, if not destroy, the industry in some localities at least. Lumber, however, had been subjected to only a

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moderate duty, which could hardly be considered as effective protection under previous tariffs. Even the McKinley law only retained existing duties, and on certain kinds of lumber lowered them.

It had been evident for some time that lumber must, in the near future, come in free, for reasons which could not be ignored. It was also plain that importations of lumber must necessarily largely increase within a very few years. Few people, comparatively, realize how rapidly our forests are being denuded, and how closely we are approaching a time when we must depend to a great extent upon the outside world for our building supplies, unless lumbering operations are largely curtailed for a time at home.

The woodman's ax and the saw-mill were aided in their work of forest consumption, in 1894, by one of the most direful calamities that ever visited the Northwest. Forest fires raged over and devastated vast tracts of land in northern Michigan and Wisconsin, in the late summer, destroying hundreds of millions of feet of standing and cut timber, laying several villages in ashes, resulting in a money loss of several million dollars, besides causing the loss of a large number of lives.

Coal and Iron.

Aside from the memorable struggle over "the sugar schedule," no feature of the prolonged and acrimonious discussion of the tariff bill of 1894

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caused greater friction in debate than the consideration of coal and iron, which form the basis of the greatest American industries. When the bill was first formulated in committee it was a foregone conclusion that there would be practical unanimity on the Democratic side in regard to placing wool on the free list. The so-called "Wilson bill," as presented in the House and passed by that body, also made coal and iron ore free. The Senate, however, refused to accept the conditions, and would only agree to a moderation of the then existing duties on those two great "raw materials," and so, in the bill as finally passed, coal and iron ore, instead of being free, were left dutiable at forty cents per ton. Both had paid seventy-five cents under the McKinley law. This reduction was not satisfactory to either side. The great coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania had uttered their emphatic protests, before the bill had been submitted to Congress, against any material reduction of existing duties, to say nothing of their entire removal. And now, although coal and iron ore were not left entirely at the mercy of foreign competition, there was little protection left in a duty which had been cut nearly one-half. The followers of the President, on the other hand, while deploring the perversity of the Senate in checking "tariff reform,"consoled themselves with the fact that, at least, "a great step forward" had been taken.

Following the reductions on coal and iron ore the duties on the entire metal schedule were subjected

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to a liberal scaling down. Pig iron, which under the law of 1890 paid $6 per ton, was reduced to $4. This, however, would hardly result in any material increase in importations, and the great bulk of the pig iron used in this country will probably always be produced here. The duty on bar iron was reduced from $22 to $12 per ton. On most of the varieties of manufactured iron and steel the duties were changed from specific to *ad valorem* or the reverse, but in nearly all cases amounting to a reduction of from one-fourth to one-half. Axles were dropped from 2 cents a pound to 1½; anvils from 2½ to 1⅝; blacksmiths' hammers, crowbars, etc, from 2¼ to 1½; hinges and bolts the same. The rate on tin and terne plates was reduced from 2½ cents to 1⅛ per pound. The advocates of tariff reform had for many years ridiculed the claim that protection was necessary for our "infant industries," saying that most of them had long since outgrown their infancy, but still clamored for protection as loudly as ever. Without commenting upon the merits of this charge in general, it may be said that the manufacture of tin plates was in every sense an "infant industry" in this country as late as 1890, for it was not until the passage of the McKinley law that any great effort had been made to establish it here. Under the stimulus and encouragement afforded by that law, several extensive plants were started in Pennsylvania and elsewhere, and the production of tin plates was began on a considerable scale. The early outputs were

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much inferior to the imported plates, but later efforts showed so much improvement that complete success seemed certain and there was every reason to believe that, if adequate protection was continued, American tin plate industry would, in a few years, afford employment for many thousands of hands. Under a reduced duty the fate of the industry cannot at once be determined.

The manufacture of cutlery, an industry which, under the influence of previous tariffs, had acquired considerable proportions, was materially affected by the modifications of the law of 1894. On pocket cutlery, valued at not more than $1 per dozen, the McKinley law placed a duty of 50 cents per dozen, and, 50 per cent *ad valorem*. The new law took just half of this off. On similar goods, valued at more than $3 per dozen, the rate was made 50 per cent *ad valorem* against the same rate with an addition of $2 per dozen under the previous law. The reductions on table cutlery, razors, etc., were not quite so large on the average. Fire-arms, saws, nails, etc., were made to pay from one-quarter to one-half less under the law of 1894, than before. Clocks were cut from 45 per cent to 25, while watches were left at the same rate as had been levied previously.

Miscellaneous Changes.

In the line of tobacco, the only marked change was on wrapper tobacco, the duty on which was lowered from $2 to $1.50 per pound. The rates on

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cigars, cigarettes, snuff and manufactured tobacco, were practically unaltered. No change was made on champagne and other wines, but the duty on brandy and other distilled spirits was placed at $1.80 per gallon, as against $2.50 under the previous law.

While in nearly all schedules where any change at all was made, it was in the direction of lower duties, there were a few instances where even the existing rates were increased. On matches the rate was just doubled, and the rate on unset precious stones was raised from 10 per cent to 25.

Boots, shoes and leather show no very material alterations. Furs were left alone, but hats were cut from 55 per cent to 40, and feathers from 50 to 35, while the rate on palm leaf fans was increased from 30 per cent to 40. On gloves of all kinds the duties were changed from *ad valorem* to specific, probably resulting in a slight reduction.

Among the general provisions of the law of 1894, those providing for free materials for ships for foreign trade, prohibiting the importation of impure literature and infected animals, imposing a discriminating duty of ten per cent in cases where no treaty exists, providing for free importation of machinery for repair, also for drawbacks on exports, etc., were substantially the same as in the McKinley law. A new provision, and one which was universally commended, was to the effect that "*All goods, wares, articles and merchandise manufactured wholly or in part in any foreign country by convict labor shall not be entitled to*

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entry at any of the ports of the United States, and the importation thereof is strictly prohibited." * * *

In past years several of the States had derived a considerable revenue from leasing the labor of their convicts, and the product of such labor was often sent into the market in competition with similar goods made by free labor. Reform legislation in many States has put an end to such unfair competition at home, and it was but an act of justice to the American workman for the general government to take measures to protect him fron similar dangers abroad.

Internal Revenue.

As has been stated, the framers of the tariff law of 1894, anticipating at least a temporary reduction in the receipts from customs duties when the lower rates came into effect, determined that a liberal portion of the possible deficiency should be made up by increased internal revenue collections. The greater portion of the revenue derived from internal taxes is, of course, borne by spirits, so when the tax thereon was raised from 90 cents to $1.10 per gallon, an extra $15,000,000 was counted on from this source. But the immediate effect of the law gave little promise that this would be realized for the first year. It so happened that a corporation whose legal title was The Distilling and Cattle Feeding Company, but which was popularly known as "The Whiskey Trust," having its headquarters at Peoria, Ill., operated most of the large distilleries in the country

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and therefore controlled the great bulk of whiskey produced. Before the passage of the new law there was stored in bonded warehouses throughout the country many millions of gallons of whiskey and other spirits, upon which the tax remained unpaid. In anticipation of the increased rate the officers of the "trust" scoured the financial centers and, utilizing every available resource at their command, raised enormous sums of money, with which they began withdrawing whiskey from bond, paying the tax at the old rate of 90 cents a gallon. Rarely if ever has there been such a rush of business at revenue collectors' offices as prevailed for a few days at this time. The receipts reached almost unprecedented figures. In two months they amounted in the aggregate to $51,924,878, as against $25,092,304 for the corresponding period of 1893. Of this vast sum no less than $39,705,000 came from spirits, and $36,693,000 from whiskey alone. It is estimated that the consumption of whiskey in the United States is 58,000,000 gallons annually. The figures show that in the brief space of two months or less nearly if not quite 40,000,000 gallons, or more than two-thirds of a year's supply had been taken out of bond, and little if any had paid the increased tax. After this extraordinary rush of business the revenue soon dropped to a point below the average monthly figure, the first month after the new law went into effect being $18,000,000 less than those of the month preceding.

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After calculating the increased receipts to be expected from spirits, the framers of the law of 1894 looked about for something else from which a few more millions might be squeezed to help out the revenue. They finally decided that playing cards could very properly be made to yield tribute, and so a section imposing a tax of two cents on each pack made and sold in the United States appeared as a new feature in the law. It was estimated that about $3,000,000 would be derived from this source.

Income Tax.

When it became known that it was proposed to incorporate an income tax provision in the bill protests poured in from various parts of the country and Congressmen, notably certain ones from Eastern States, were earnestly besought by their constituents to leave no stone unturned to defeat such a measure, which it was declared would be un-Democratic, un-American and a piece of discrimination of the most unwarranted and outrageous kind.

The radical tariff reformers, in defense of their scheme, contended that the income tax was only designed as a temporary measure. It was finally decided that the desired adjustment of means to ends would probably be accomplished within five years; and so, when the new tariff bill went through, there was a section which provided that: "From and after January 1, 1895, and until January 1, 1900, there shall be assessed, levied, collected and

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paid annually upon the gains, profits and income received in the preceding calendar year by every citizen of the United States, whether residing at home or abroad, and every person residing therein, whether such gains, profits or income be derived from any kind of property, rents, interests, dividends or salaries, or from any profession, trade, employment or vocation carried on in the United States or elsewhere, or from any other source whatever, a tax on the amount so derived over and above $4,000, and a like tax shall be levied, collected and paid annually upon the gains, profits and income from all property owned, and of every business, trade or profession carried on in the United States by persons residing without the United States. * * * *."

A further section imposed a tax of two per cent on the net income of all companies and corporations doing business for profits, and in order that nobody capable of earning or making over $4,000 a year should escape the clutches of the tax gatherer, it was ordered that, in case any person or corporation refused or neglected to render a return as required, or made a false list, the revenue collector should make up a list of the delinquent's income from such information as could be obtained, and then 100 *per cent should be added to the tax assessed!*

Reciprocity Abandoned.

Another feature of the new law which met with considerable criticism was a clause abrogating the

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reciprocal agreements which President Harrison, under the authority of the law of 1890, had entered into with several countries with a view to promoting trade with the United States and securing an enlarged market for many of our manufactured products.

From the showings made up to the time of the passage of the law of 1894, it was evidently considered that reciprocity had been only a partial success, and by their action the Democrats in Congress declared their belief that its continuance was unwarranted.

To show the actual effect of reciprocity it may be of interest to give a few figures. The first reciprocal agreement was entered into with Spain February 1, 1891, to secure trade with Cuba and Porto Rico. April 1, 1891, an arrangement was made with Brazil, and on September 1 of the same year the agreement with San Domingo was perfected. With these exceptions, the other reciprocal treaties under the law of 1890 were not concluded until 1892.

Generally stated, during the operation of the arrangements, our exports increased to Guatemala, Salvador, British West Indies, San Domingo, Cuba, Porto Rico, Brazil and British Guiana. At the same time they decreased to Honduras and Nicaragua. Our imports increased from all the first named countries excepting Salvador, but from Honduras and Nicaragua they were less than before the reciprocal arrangements were made.

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But it was with Cuba and Brazil that reciprocity showed the most satisfactory results. Our exports to Cuba had been steadily from $10,000,000 to $12,000,000 annually. In 1890, the year before reciprocity, they amounted to $13,084,415. In 1892, the year after the arrangement, the figures jumped to $17,953,570, and in 1893, went to $24,157,698, but in 1894, dropped to $20,125,321. The highest figure our imports from Cuba had ever reached, prior to 1890, was $70,450,652, in 1882. In 1892 they amounted to but $61,714,395. The following year they increased to $77,931,671, and in 1893, to $78,706,506.

Reciprocity with Brazil received a set back owing to the revolution in that country. Our highest exports to Brazil, up to 1889, had been about $9,000,000. The next year, before the reciprocal arrangement was made, they were $11,972,214. In 1891 and 1892 the figures were over $14,000,000, but in 1893, dropped to a little over $12,000,000. Before 1890 our imports from Brazil had never been much more than $60,000,000 annually. Reciprocity gave a great impetus to our imports, for in 1891, they rose to $83,230,595, and in 1892, reached the extraordinary value of $118,633,604. With none of the other countries, except Cuba and Brazil, did our trade show similar percentages of increase.

Whatever be the ultimate effect of the abrogation of the reciprocal treaties, it is certain that not all the countries which had enjoyed advantages under them

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were inclined to accept the change without making some effort at retaliation. Germany, for instance, soon after the passage of the Law of 1894, began to discriminate in the matter of duties against certain American products.

Whatever may be the ultimate settlement of the tariff question in this country, the results of the elections of 1894, show conclusively that the people did not like their first lesson in tariff reform in recent years, and repudiated it at the ballot-box. Time may prove to them that protection is wrong, but evidently the great majority must have been satisfied with its workings, and preferred even its "robbery" to the "cheap prices" promised under tariff reform. The American people are usually inclined to let well enough alone. Sometimes they try experiments, but when an experiment costs several hundred million dollars they are apt to pause and inquire if they are not "paying too dear for the whistle."

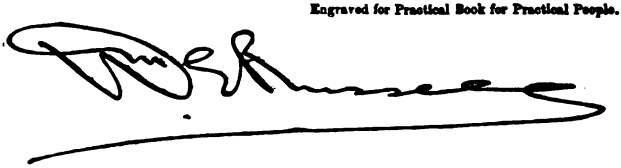


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The Tariff Question from a Democratic Standpoint.

By WILLIAM E. RUSSELL,
EX-GOVERNOR OF MASSACHUSETTS.

General Position of the Democratic Party.

BEFORE proceeding to a discussion of the relations sustained by the Democratic party to the great question of the tariff, it is well to consider briefly the nature and aims of Democracy.

Our party was not founded for a single mission, which, accomplished, left it drifting with no fixed star of principle to guide it. It was born and has lived to uphold great truths of government that need always to be enforced. The influence of the past speaks to us in the voice of the present. Jefferson and Jackson still lead us.

Their faith and ours rests upon an abiding trust in the people, a belief that power can safely be put into their hands, and that the broader the foundation, the safer the structure of our government. We believe in the freedom and equality of all men in the affairs

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of state and before the altar of their God; in the freedom of the individual from unnecessary restrictions and unnecessary burdens; that a government least felt is the best; that taxation, the greatest burden and power of government, shall not be used to enrich the few at the expense of the many, but in its purpose be limited to the support of government for the benefit of all, rather than be made a gigantic instrument for distributing favors or paying political debts; that of itself it is not a blessing which excuses and demands a wild extravagance, but a necessary evil, to be lessened by prudence and economy; that it should be levied justly, equally, according to men's means, and not their necessities.

The tariff is taxation, taxation pure and simple. The Democratic party, believing that a government has no right unnecessarily to impose its burdens, and after years of trial, finding great inequality in the distribution of wealth, and great discontent amongst the wage-earners, has demanded that this taxation be reconsidered, and the people relieved of some of its unnecessary burdens. Its principle is one of plain common sense. It insists that where a tariff tax is laid upon a necessary of life which is the raw material of a great industry, and such tax is not needed for revenue, then the tax is unjust, unnecessary, and injurious, because a burden on the people and a burden on their industries. Such are taxes on coal and wool and crude iron and the raw materials of our industries.

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Economy, low taxes, free wool, free lumber, free salt, free coal, cheaper necessaries of life, and raw materials that quicken industry, it believes to be the true American policy. Against this it places the protective policy of the Republican party which means, first, keeping the burdens of over-taxation on nearly seventy million consumers; second, restricting and crippling industries by failure to give them free raw material; third, raising tariff taxation in many instances to a prohibitory height; fourth, wild and willful extravagance; fifth, the absolute abandonment of the prior declared policy of the Republican party. Such policy taxes consumption, not wealth; it taxes men, not according to their property, but according to their necessities. It is unjust taxation; because it seeks to warp the power of government for the benefit of the few against the interests of all the people, to build up the fortunes of the few and then trust to their charity for a just and equal distribution.

The Republican policy leads, in the words of Senator Plumb, "to that point where the system of protection as applied is to result in the breaking down of certain industries for the benefit of others; where the large industries which have the most potential voice in Congress are to destroy the small ones." Bastiat's words could well be applied to the Republican party. "Your system has written over the entrance of the legislative halls these words, 'whoever acquires any influence here can obtain his share of the legalized pillage.'"

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A government of bounties and of benefits by the Republican party, for the use of that party and its beneficiaries, is in strange contrast to the old principle of "a government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

History of the Movement for Tariff Reform, and the Record of the Republican Party upon it.

There are certain facts in the tariff discussion that all concede. There is no question that the former tariff was a war tariff, instituted for war purposes, but raised, instead of lowered, when that exigency had passed. There is no question that it was much higher than any tariff this Nation had ever known before the war. There is no question that before the war industries thrived, and great industrial centers like Lowell, Lawrence and Fall River were founded and prosperous, and that happiness and contentment reigned throughout the whole country. The census shows that from the years 1850 to 1860, under almost the lowest tariff that the Nation ever had, there was an increase of 90 per cent. in capital invested in industries, of 60 per cent. in wages, and of 85 per cent. in products; while the increase from 1870 to 1880, under almost the highest tariff, was but 32 per cent. in capital, 22 per cent. in wages, and 27 per cent. in products. Since the war it is conceded there had been a reduction in taxation, but not in tariff taxation.

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Those taxes which affected especially the rich, and were paid by them, were gradually taken off; but the taxes which affected the humble firesides and the poorer citizens had not been lessened, but on the whole increased.

It was not, however, until 1890 that the Republican party for the first time cut loose from all its previous traditions and declared not only that an increase in the tariff duties was necessary but that tariff taxation should be increased purely for the sake of protection itself, apart from the question of revenue, and so the official title of the McKinley Bill was, "A bill to reduce the revenue."

In the early history of the Republican party up to the time of the war, it advocated a tariff for revenue, and gave its support to the lowest tariff the country had had for generations. Sumner and Wilson, and substantially the whole New England delegation, voted for such a tariff in 1857. That was a time when industries were being founded, were infants, and needed, if ever, the right to tax people for their support.

Then came the war and the necessity for larger revenue, resulting in the Morrill tariff law. Then came higher internal taxes, and, to offset their burden, the higher tariff laws of 1862 and 1864.

The author of these tariffs, and all the Republican leaders, distinctly declared that they were revenue tariffs, and should be reduced when the necessity for the greater revenue of the war was ended.

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Mr. Morrill, the author of a higher tariff, said on May 8, 1860: "There are no duties proposed on any article for the simple purpose of protection alone."

On June 2, 1864, he said of the high protection of that year: "This is intended as a war measure, and we must as such give it our support."

In 1870 this author of high tariff again said: "It is a mistake of the friends of sound tariff to insist on the extreme rates imposed during the war, if less will raise the necessary revenue."

Senator Sherman, in 1867, in Congress, when not under party pressure, said: "It is simply an absurdity to talk now about a free trade tariff; and to talk about a protective tariff is unnecessary, because the wit of man could not possibly frame a tariff that would produce $140,000,000, in gold without amply protecting our domestic industries."

Senator Allison, another Republican leader, on March 24, 1870, said: "The tariff of 1846 (a very low tariff), though confessedly and professedly a tariff for revenue, was, so far as regards all the great industries of the country, as perfect a tariff as any that we have ever had."

And Mr. Blaine, in his work entitled "Twenty Years of Congress," writes: "The principles embodied in the tariff of 1846 seemed for the time to be so entirely vindicated and approved that resistance to it ceased, not only among the people but among the protective economists, and even among the manufacturers to a large extent. So general was this ac-

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quiescence that in 1856 a protective tariff was not suggested or even hinted by any one of the three parties which presented Presidential candidates."

Here are the authors of high tariff laws and Republican leaders distinctly and publicly declaring in favor of tariffs for revenue only, stating that their own high tariffs were for this purpose, and averring that they were ample to protect all interests. Yet now such doctrines when uttered by Democratic lips are unsparingly denounced.

Next the Republican party through the declarations of its leaders declared that the high tariff should be reduced.

In 1882 President Arthur, in his message to Congress, said: "The present tariff system is in many respects unjust. It makes unequal distribution both of its burdens and its benefits. * * * Without entering into minute details, which under present circumstances is quite unnecessary, I recommend an enlargement of the free list, so as to include within it the numerous articles which yield considerable revenue, and a substantial reduction of the duties upon those articles, and upon sugar, molasses, silk, wool, and woolen goods."

The Republican Secretary of the Treasury, in his report of December, 1884, said that there must be a reduction of the tariff, and he specifically recommended: "First, that the existing duties upon raw materials which are to be used in manufacture should be removed. This can be done in the interest of our

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foreign trade. Second, that the duties upon the articles used or consumed by those who are the least able to bear the burden of taxation, should be reduced."

And in 1884, also, Mr. (now Senator) Lodge, in his State Convention, declared himself in favor of tariff reform by freeing "entirely those great necessaries of life which enter into the daily consumption of every household, and by wise and discriminating reductions."

In 1882, under a Republican administration, the necessity for a reduction of the tariff had become so great, and was so generally conceded, that President Arthur not only recommended it, but also recommended the appointment of a Tariff Commission.

The Commission as chosen by him was made up almost wholly of Republicans, and experts taken from and representing all the great protected industries of the country. Its chairman was one of the ablest protectionists in the country, and the secretary of the Woolen Manufacturers' Association.

That Commission, after a thorough examination, made a report speaking of the "excessively protective period of the late war," declaring "a substantial reduction of tariff duties is demanded and is neces sary * * * as a measure of justice to consumers, and conducive to general industrial prosperity;" and it recommended a reduction of from 20 to 25 per cent., and reductions especially on steel rails, and wools and woolens.

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But the Republican party, guided and controlled by selfish interests and protected capitalists, then began to break its pledges to the people, and to retract its low tariff declarations. The bill for reduction framed by the Commission came out of the secrecy of the conference committee room with a general rise of duties, and later the Republican party opposed the reduction of 10 per cent. in the Morrison Bill, and of 5 per cent. in the Mills Bill in 1886.

But again, even as late as the campaign of 1888, the party promised revision of the tariff, and only asked that the work be committed to its friends. No Republican convention or leader during that campaign suggested that the duties should be enormously increased. Yet the existing duties were generally and largely raised by the McKinley Bill, and the reason is now clear. To raise campaign funds the Republicans applied to the protected manufacturers for contributions, and in the famous confidential circular, issued on May 25, 1888, by the Republican League of the United States, and not intended for the eye of the workingmen, said: "The campaign which we are about to enter will concern, more than anybody else, the manufacturers of this country. * * * If you give us the means to win the victory we will do it. Are you willing?"

When the victory was won, those who had paid for it demanded their share of the spoils, and received it in the form of higher duties. As the Republican Senator Plumb said, "Whatever the manufacturers

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have asked in the way of duties, as a rule has been granted." It was their interest which was considered and many clauses in the bill were framed by them. Then, having satisfied the demands of selfish interests, the Republican party declared the tariff question was settled.

Its record, then, is, first, cordial approval and support of almost the lowest tariff we have ever had, and a tariff for revenue only; second, raising the tariff during the war confessedly for revenue only; third, repeated promises and pledges to reduce it; fourth, opposition to every attempt at reduction, and the constant raising of it still higher; fifth, demand that the question be considered settled; and then that party, with broken pledges and forgotten principles, boldly declared that the taxing power through the tariff could and should be used, not for revenue, but for protection only to the annihilation of revenue; not for public purposes, but private interests; not for the benefit of the people, but to enrich the few.

Protection and Prices.

The Democratic party, on the contrary, insists that this great burden of tariff taxation be lifted. First, because it is a burden to the consumer. It maintains that the tariff is a tax and that the first effect of the high protective policy of the Republican party is to raise prices and make the cost of living higher than it would be but for such tariff. This is

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its purpose and object. It is intended to shut out competition, to protect from competition by law as a trust does by mutual agreement, and to prevent people buying where they could buy the cheapest. Either protection is useless, or it must work through higher prices.

The Democratic party cites for its evidence the confession of the protected industries in 1882, which then, through their Tariff Commission, admitted that the reduction of $35,000,000 of tariff duties would benefit consumers by hundreds of millions of dollars.

It cites John Sherman, who declared in 1867: "I said it, and I stand by it, that, as a general rule, the duties paid on imports operate as a tax upon the consumer."

Mr. Blaine, in his "Twenty Years in Congress," says, speaking of the increase of duties on imports by the Tariff Act of July 14, 1862, that it "shut out still more conclusively all competition from foreign fabrics. The increased cost was charged to the consumer."

John Quincy Adams long ago declared: "The duty constitutes the price of the whole mass of the article in the market. It is substantially paid on the article of domestic manufacture, as well as on that of foreign production."

Does any one believe that the changes raising duties made by the McKinley Bill were made for the purpose of lowering prices? How were they brought about? Did the people ask for them? In every case

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it will be found that the people who had goods to sell made this demand. It was the political shepherds of Ohio who had wool to sell that demanded the higher duties upon wool. It was the iron owners of Pennsylvania who had iron and steel to sell that wanted a higher tariff upon these articles. It was the Lime Trust with lime to sell, and the Glass Trust with glass to sell, and the owners of the coal mines of Pennsylvania with coal to sell, these are the men who made the demand and who always stand behind high tariff duties. Does any one think that they wanted high or higher duties to make the goods cheaper which they had to sell? It is absurd on the face of it.

It must be true that the consumer pays the tax on the imported articles, because otherwise the tariff could not be a benefit to the home producer. If the consumer here pays no more for the imported article because of the tariff, his purchase will not be affected whether tariff is high or low, and he will be no more apt to buy here than abroad. Unless, then, the consumer pays the difference in the cost of production, the manufacturer in this country cannot produce and sell. Hence the consumer pays a price for the home goods higher than the price of the foreign articles owing to the tax.

The protectionists contradict themselves in their own McKinley Bill, by pointing out that the taking off of the tax on sugar reduced the price from one to two cents. If this was so, then the imposition of the tax must raise the price to the consumer. And if reduc-

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ing the tax on sugar is a benefit to every person who consumes sugar, why is not reducing the tax on woolens, and coal, and iron, and hats, and buttons, and other household necessities, a benefit to every consumer. The price that every consumer pays for protection is well illustrated by the effects of the tax upon tin plate, which was raised by the McKinley Bill from 1 to 2 2-10 per lb., increasing in one year the duties paid from $7,000,000 to $15,000,000. The direct result of this tax was to raise the price of a box of tin plates in this country from $4.45 in May, 1890, to $5.37, in August, 1892, a rise of 92 cents, while in the same period in England the price fell 24 1-2 cents.

So to the whole canning industry in this country, employing thousands of persons, and to every person using tin utensils, and tin plates, the price of tin was raised — for what? In order to protect a tin plate industry which did not exist at the time of the bill, and which in June, 1892, only produced 2 per cent. of our total consumption of tin plate. Opposed to this policy of raising the price of necessities to the whole people for the benefit of a few manufacturers to support or build up an industry by taxation, is the Democratic policy of reduction of duties. It says to the workingman, "remove the taxes and you make the raw materials and their products cheaper. If wool, for instance, is cheaper, clothing is cheaper; if clothing is cheaper, there is a greater demand for it. You and I might buy two suits, perhaps, where now we buy one. If there is a greater demand, then more

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clothes must be made. Then comes more work, a greater demand for labor. Then come the two jobs looking for the one man, instead of the two men for the one job, and then necessarily comes higher wages."

The necessary effect of the McKinley Act and of all protection is to enable the manufacturers of protected articles at home to keep up the prices to a certain figure, no matter what may be the diminution in the cost of their raw material, or in the wages of their laborers, because the high duty protects them against competition abroad, so long as they keep their prices just below the point which would enable the importer to bring them in and realize a profit after paying the duty.

No one doubts that all the forces of civilization, with every improvement in machinery, and skill, and transportation, are constantly fighting for lower prices. No one doubts that they can in course of time reduce prices, notwithstanding the protective tariff. No one claims that the tariff tax can wholly offset and defeat the progressive reduction of prices which these forces accomplish; but just as surely as they fight for lower prices, a protective tariff tax stands in their way, fighting for higher prices.

The celebrated Report of the Senate Finance Committee in 1892 clearly proves this, showing that 75 of the 214 articles embraced within it increased in price while 139 articles decreased in price. Of the 75 increasing in price, 54, or 72 per cent., had their duties increased by the McKinley Bill, while of the 139

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articles decreasing in price, 92, or 66 per cent., had their duties unaltered or reduced by that bill. An examination of the 82 articles upon which there has been no change of tariff duty by the McKinley Bill, shows that 65, or 79 per cent., of them fell in price, while only 17, or 21 per cent., increased in price. While of the 31 articles upon which the tariff duties were decreased, 27, or 89 per cent., fell in price, and 4, or 11 per cent., increased in price. There were 101 articles upon which tariff duties were increased. Of these, 54, or 53 per cent., increased in price, and 47, or 47 per cent., decreased in price.

The Democratic party maintains that a protective duty raises prices and the cost of living higher than they otherwise would be, and to that extent it is a burden which enters into every home and is felt by every individual.

This fact was conceded in the official declaration of Mr. McKinley, the author of the bill, in his report, submitting it to Congress. Speaking for his committee, he said: "We have not been so much concerned about the prices of the articles we consume as we have been to encourage a system of home production." Then he continues: "We have not believed that our people, already suffering from low prices, can or will be satisfied with legislation which will result in lower prices." But do people suffer from low prices? Does the head of a family, earning his $1.50 per day, with a half dozen little ones to support, suffer when coal is $1.00 a ton less, or

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flour $1.00 a barrel cheaper? The McKinley Bill and policy says yes, and proposed to stop such a calamity.

Republican Theory of the Foreigner Paying the Tax.

The protectionist may endeavor to escape from the conclusion that a tariff raises prices by saying it is not the consumer but the foreign exporter who pays the tax. Let us consider this a moment. For example, from October, 1890, to July, 1891, the value of the common woolen dress goods imported here was $5,280,841. The tax upon them was $5,423,422, making the cost to the importer at New York $10,704,264. If the foreigner paid the tax then he actually donated $5,280,841 worth of goods to us and paid us $142,000 more in money to induce us to take them.

Furthermore, if the foreigner pays the tax why should the woolen manufacturer here have been given an additional duty on the foreign goods imported exactly equivalent to and measured by the tax on the amount of wool which enters into the manufacture of native goods, and so called a compensatory duty? He received this compensatory duty of 33 to 44 cents per pound, on woolen cloth imported simply because the tax on the raw wool compelled him to pay more for it than if it were untaxed if he desired to use it in making his own cloths. Clearly the foreigner did not pay the duty on wool in this instance, or else we were

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making a mere present to the manufacturer of the compensatory duty.

Further, the McKinley Act provided that when raw materials subject to duty are imported into the United States and converted here into manufactured articles which are exported for sale abroad, the domestic manufacturer, producer, or exporter shall have a drawback equal to the amount of duty paid, less one per cent. If the foreigner paid that duty, why in the name of common sense and common honesty did we pass a law to pay it back not to him but to somebody else, as for example, to the Standard Oil Company who exports oil in cans made from imported tin plate.

Protection and the Manufacturers.

Second. The protective tariff on raw materials is a burden to our manufacturers.

Take first, the tariff on wool, whom has that benefited? Certainly not the consumers, who have had to pay just so much more for their clothing because of the increased price of foreign wool to the manufacturer. Certainly not the wool-grower. From 1867 to 1891, the number of sheep west of the Mississippi river only increased 4,000,000, the number east decreased 11,000,000, and the price of wool has steadily fallen under high tariffs. The price was 50 3–4 cents in 1867. The tariff duty was increased and the price fell to 46 cents. In 1890 the price was 33 cents. In 1891, after the McKinley Bill, 31 cents.

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and in 1893, 25 cents. The success of the wool-growers here depends upon that of the woolen manufacturers. We may take the declaration of the latter as to their own condition. In 1889, 524 manufacturers and dealers in wool and woolen goods petitioned Congress for free wool, and 196 others for a reduction in duties. In those petitions they referred to "the present depression in the wool manufacturing industry," and added: "As the only civilized country in the world, so far as we are informed, which levies a duty on raw wool, we ask that American industry may be relieved of this unnatural burden, and that our domestic wool interests may now be put on the same wholesome basis as the cotton manufacturing industry, with free raw material."

On June 14, 1890, the Wool Consumers' Association, in a petition to Congress signed by such well-known men as Arthur T. Lyman, Jesse Metcalf, and others, and by such famous companies as the Lowell Manufacturing Company, the Wanskuck, Weybosset, and others, said: "For the protection of the wool manufacture of this country, and for its rescue from a most hampered and depressed condition, we ask for a great reduction or a total abolition of the duty on wool."

The value of woolen goods made in Massachusetts in 1865 was $31,550,081, and in 1885 was $31,748,278, and the number of hands employed increased only from 18,965 to 18,970.

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The protectionist paper, the *American Wool and Cotton Reporter*, on July 23, 1891, said: "The wool industry in several departments shows greater depression to-day than before the passage of the McKinley Bill. * * * If the expected benefits from the tariff are to come, they are certainly a long time in materializing."

On August 6, 1891, it said editorially: "The woolen mills have had a long and exhausting period of depression. Their business was dull and unsatisfactory when the iron trade was active, when the shoe and leather interest was profitable, and when the cotton mills were enjoying the handsome dividends of the year 1889 and 1890."

Until its change of policy in 1894, the United States was about the only civilized country which taxed wool. France and Germany, with high protection, as well as free trade England, admit wool free. Even here there was but a light tax on wool until the war.

The Democratic party says that because a tariff tax on wool is a burden to the industry, the manufacturer claims and gets additional duty on his goods, exactly equivalent to, and measured by the tax on the amount of wool which enters into their manufacture, and even called a compensatory duty.

It notes one important effect of such a duty. The manufacturer, shut out from getting the wool of the world, or compelled to pay a high price, has been forced to use adulterants more than ever before in

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the manufacture of his goods, and so the people are getting more and more shoddy, and less and less of woolen clothing and other goods. Since 1890 there has been an increase in shoddy mills of 44 per cent., a remarkable increase in the use of such materials as shoddy, animal hair, and other substitutes for wool, and a noticeable increase also of the import of these wool substitutes. So that in place of pure wool, our manufacturers are being steadily compelled, because of this high duty on foreign wools, to substitute for it old rags, cast-off clothing, animal hair, and cotton extracts.

It declares that with wools free, our woolen manufacturers, and especially the carpet men, will be able to export and compete abroad.

In the carpet industry, it is necessary to mix the lower grade wools with the finer. The lower grade wools cannot be raised in this country at all, and yet they have been heavily taxed, and the price of carpets consequently so raised that the manufacturer cannot export. With the lower grade wools free, not only will the price be reduced, but the consumption of native wools will be largely increased because of the increased demand for the mixture.

It notes what the manufacturers themselves say as to the benefit of free wool.

Mr. Bleakie declares, "We could sell our surplus in foreign markets profitably, if wool and all necessary dyes and chemicals were free, just as well as cotton

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and shoe manufacturers, who both sell their surplus that way."

Mr. Ayers, of Philadelphia, a leading manufacturer of blankets, declares, "Free wool means to the people cheap, good clothes, better food, and happier homes."

Mr. Metcalf, of Providence, the head of large woolen mills, says, "With free wool, we have not half enough machinery in this country to supply the demands for goods."

And it says remove the tax on wool, allow the manufacturers to manufacture cloth cheaper. Then surely will follow greater demand, increased output, increase in number of factories, increase in trade and export, greater demand for workingmen, better wages and cheaper clothes.

Take the iron industry. How does this great industry stand to-day under high protective tariff taxation? Let me turn to Republican authorities for a statement of the facts, and let the usual Republican answer, that he who states these facts is "calamity shrieking," be given by that party to its own utterances.

First, I quote from the *Census Bulletin*, No. 156, of January 18, 1892, on the manufactures of iron and steel in the New England States, issued by Mr. Porter, the Superintendent of the Census, and prepared by his special agents. It shows, in the first place, that iron and steel establishments in New England from 1880 to 1890, decreased from 61 to 35, and the number of workingmen employed from 8,654 to 6,645.

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In February, 1889, a petition was sent to Congress signed by 598 iron and steel manufacturers of New England, most of them Republicans, including the Governor of Massachusetts, Oliver Ames, which declared that the duty on pig iron was "wiping out the iron and steel industry," but said, "there is no necessity for letting it die; it is only the existing duties on coal, ore, and crude iron that are strangling these industries; and the abolition of these duties will not only keep it alive, but will insure it a renewed vitality, a large increase, and will add more largely to the wealth and population of New England than any possible legislation upon any other subject."

I also quote the authority of John Roach and Mr. Cramp, the great ship-builders, who have said that with free iron ore on the banks of the Delaware, they could build vessels as cheaply as they could be built on the Clyde; the words of Mr. Bent, president of one of the largest iron and steel companies of Pennsylvania, who said that with free raw material he could "lay down pig iron in Liverpool, and send steel rails to London;" the assertions of great manufacturers like Mr. Sargent of Connecticut, and many others to the same effect. Mr. Sargent shows that in certain branches of the hardware business, it is necessary to use a mixture of foreign irons with domestic, and yet those foreign irons are so heavily taxed that he can produce that line of goods only for domestic consumption, whereas with the tax off he could compete abroad, thus increasing the output of his works, em-

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ploying more men, and making the goods cheaper to consumers in this country.

Who then is benefited by this tariff taxation? The *Iron Age*, of January 30, 1890, referring to the beneficiaries of the tariff protection, said, "The iron ore mining companies of the Lake Superior region are now reaping enormous profits," one company earning 25 per cent. dividend, another more than its entire capital in fifteen months. These profits came from taxation of the people, and were made possible by the destruction of like industries in other sections.

The Democratic party says to manufacturers, with cheaper raw material, the finished product is cheaper; its cheaper price makes greater demand; the greater demand makes more work and higher wages; gives our manufacturers a better chance in foreign markets with the manufacturers of other countries whose goods are cheaper because of free material. Thus our people might have an opportunity of extending their sales beyond the limits of home consumption, saving them from the depression, interruption in business, and loss caused by a glutted domestic market, and affording their employees more certain and steady labor, with its resulting quiet and contentment.

It says, look at the leather industry. In 1872 the Republican party took off the taxes upon hides, and immediately there followed a great growth of the leather and shoe industries. Exports of leather increased from $500,000, to nearly $10,000,000 a year,

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going into the markets of the world with a profit in competition with the labor of the world. So that when in 1890 hides were threatened with a duty, there came an earnest protest from the boot and shoe manufacturers in the country against that tax as a burden to their industry. Mr. McKinley said there was just as much reason for taxing hides as wool. He was right, but he did not put back the duty. If free hides benefit the leather industry, and free rags the paper industry, free silk the silk industry, why should not free wool and free iron and free coal be a benefit to these other industries and to the persons who have to buy their products?

Protection and Trusts.

The protective system is, first, a burden to the people by increasing the cost of living; next, a burden to our industries by limiting our market to a home market and there even limiting the sales more than they would be with free raw material because it raises the cost and so lessens the demand for the product. Let us see what next follows. Inevitably the formation of trusts, which raise prices, reduce production, and lessen the amount of work and wages. With no outlet abroad for over-production, and a lessened demand at home by high cost, the manufacturer turns to the trust to remedy his trouble. Through the trust he controls and raises prices, and through it he controls and limits production. With

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lessened production comes less work; and then men out of employment, and necessarily less wages.

Instead of urging the manufacturer to enter the markets of the world, and giving him as the means to do it free raw material, the Republican policy compels him to stay at home, and invites him to form a trust. Protection from competition from without gives him his opportunity. Over-production at home or desire for enormous profit furnishes the incentive.

Take one instance of such a trust, the steel rail trust. What are the facts?

First, a protective tariff tax of $13.44 per ton. This is a higher tax than the total labor cost of the steel rail from the mining of the ore to the time of the finished product. It is four times higher than the difference in wages here and abroad as claimed by the Republican party to exist in that industry.

Now note the next fact. This duty accomplishes its real purpose, and absolutely excludes all competition from without. The next step inevitably follows, the formation of a trust to exclude competition from within. So we find the six largest companies, headed by the Illinois Steel Company and Mr. Carnegie, with an annual capacity of nearly three millions of tons, formed into such a trust.

Having effectually disposed of competition, this trust then determines how much profit it will extort from the people. For the year 1891 they fixed the price of steel rails at $30 a ton. Yet Mr. Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labor, de-

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clared that the actual cost of standard rails was and had been for some time about $22 per ton at the works. Here then is $8 per ton profit on a capacity for 3,000,000 tons fixed by a trust under shelter of the Republican protective tariff on steel rails.

John Sherman recognized the sheltering influence of a protective tariff upon trusts when he declared, October 15, 1889, "Whenever this free competition is evaded or avoided by combination of individuals, or corporations, the duties should be reduced, and foreign competition promptly invited."

If reducing the duty can remedy the evil, then a high tariff stands responsible for its existence. In 1892 there was a list of 139 of such trusts, "combines" and monopolies, every one of them in a protected industry, and in 58 of them additional protection was given under the McKinley law.

In a word, the necessity of combination to maintain the price of any commodity to the tariff point, furnishes proof that some one is willing to accept lower prices for such commodity, and that such prices are remunerative; and hence that protection is not really needed at so high a rate of duty. Thus, where either of these conditions exist, a case would seem to be presented for an easy reduction of taxation.

Protection and the Farmer.

Fourth. Protection is a burden to the farmers. The Republicans say that they make a home market for agricultural products by their tariff policy, that

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they indirectly give a benefit to agriculture by building up communities for farmers to feed.

The Republican goes to the farmer and says: Protection raises the price of what you sell, and reduces the price of the manufactured articles that you buy. Hence you are benefited. But when the Republican goes to the manufacturer, he says: Protection raises the price of the manufactured article that you sell, and makes the article that you consume cheaper. Hence you are benefited. The farmer must see the contradiction of these arguments and reason for himself how little protection helps him.

Let us state the account between the farmer and the tariff, and see how he comes out, what burdens and benefits he gets from it. In any scheme of taxation the interest of the farmer ought to be most carefully considered. Nearly one-half of the people in this country who are engaged in gainful occupations are farmers; far more are so engaged than in manufactures. Their condition is well known. From all sides come up the cries of low prices for farm products, impoverished conditions of the farmers, and decrease in the value and number of farms.

The reason why farmers all over the country are suffering is, I think, a plain and simple one. By the Republican tariff policy, most that they buy has been raised in price; but the price of most that they sell is fixed in competition with the labor of the world, and is not raised by tariff taxes. The price of farm products in New England, no doubt, is low-

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ered by western competition, but the price of western products is fixed by the price they sell for in England in competition with the world. Our farms produce much more than our people consume, and the surplus must find a market abroad. Unless it did this, there would be a glut of the market here, and a still further lowering of prices. So each year we export enormous quantities of grains and bread-stuffs, but under the Republican tariff policy, which discourages foreign trade, and looks upon commerce as a sin, our exports of these articles have been declining, while the exports of the same articles from India and other nations have increased. Our exports of breadstuffs declined from 1880 to 1889 to the extent of $165,000,000; of wheat, from 144,000,000 bushels to 46,000,000 bushels. In 1880, we furnished 69 per cent. of all the foreign wheat consumed in European markets, and in 1889 but a little over 20 per cent. In 1891 and 1892 bad crops in Europe and extraordinary large crops here increased our exports of grain, but the farmer cannot and does not expect those conditions every year.

What is to become of the farmer of the West if the amount of his product is constantly increasing, but the foreign market for it constantly diminishing?

Mr. Blaine appreciated this difficulty when he said that our great need was to extend our trade and get additional foreign markets, and showed that he was well aware of the burden of the McKinley tariff on the farmer when he said, "there is not a line or sec-

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tion of it which will open up a market for another bushel of wheat or barrel of pork."

The Democratic policy is to reduce the price of articles which the farmer consumes by reducing the tariff tax and to increase foreign trade giving the farmer a chance to export more of his food products to pay for goods imported.

What did the McKinley Bill do for him? It gave him only a mock protection. For instance, it doubled the protective tariff duties on beef and pork, though we export about $100,000,000 worth of these articles, and import only about $500,000 worth. What possible good can the farmer get by a tariff on such articles under these circumstances?

It raised the tariff duties on butter and cheese, though we export 12 times as much cheese as we import, and 350 times as much butter as we import. It raised the tariff protection on wheat, though in 1889 we exported over 46,000,000 bushels, and imported a little over 2,000; on corn, though in 1889 we exported 69,000,000 bushels and imported about 2,000; on rye the tariff tax was left at 10 cents, though we exported 287,000 bushels, and imported 16 bushels.

Does any farmer believe that a high-tariff tax on these 16 bushels would affect the price of rye in this country?

Protection and Wages.

But the Republicans say that all these high-tariff taxes with their evident burdens have been for the

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benefit of labor. They try to persuade the workingman that taxation taken out of him to benefit the few is the panacea for all his woes.

The truth is that these tariff taxes are put on in the name of labor, but labor does not get them. The Republicans say first that it is because of protection that our wages are high, that a reduction of the tariff means to our workingmen lower wages for them. You may, however, make any comparison you please, and you cannot show that a high tariff fixes or raises wages. You may compare free-trade England with the high protective tariff countries of Europe, and you will find wages lower under protection on the continent than in England. You may compare England under a high tariff and a low tariff, and at the time when she had no protective tariff, and you will find that the wages were highest when the tariff was lowest.

In our own country you may compare the period from 1850 to 1860, when we had our lowest tariff, with the period from 1870 to 1880, when we had a very high tariff, and you will find that in manufacturing industries during the first period wages increased 60 per cent., and during the last period only 22 per cent.

You may compare the wages in highly protected industries, and those in industries which are not protected, and you will find the highest wages in the industries where there is the least protection. Or you may go farther, and compare wages in the different

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States in this country, between which there is absolute free trade, and you will find often a greater difference between the wages in different States than the difference between wages here and in England.

In the first place, let us compare what they call free-trade England with other countries that are highly protected and notice their scale of wages.

The wages in the cotton industry in England are 50 per cent. higher than those in Germany, and 30 per cent. higher than those in France, while the hours of labor in England are shorter. In the woolen industry wages are 50 per cent. higher in England than in Germany, and from 20 to 35 per cent. higher than in France. Yet France and Germany are both highly protected countries, and England has a low tariff. Why are wages not highest in these protected countries?

If we come to our own country for comparisons, we have had here a high tariff and a low tariff. We have had a low, a very low tariff long before England had. During our lowest tariff period from 1850 to 1860, wages increased in the United States 60 per cent., while under high tariff from 1870 to 1880, they increased only 22 per cent.

If high wages are due to a high tariff, we surely ought to find them highest in the industries that are protected, and lowest in those industries that are not protected. But the fact is exactly the reverse.

Taking the census of 1880, and dividing the total wages in an industry by the number of men employed

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in that industry, you will find that the wages are almost invariably less in the protected industry, than in the one that has little or no protection. For instance, in the protected cotton industry, the wages average $245, while the wages of carpenters, who are unprotected, average $454. In the manufacture of men's clothing (protected), wages average $286, but the wages of bakers, (unprotected), $419. In silk goods, $292, but meat packing, $385; machine making, $455, but printing and publishing, $522; iron and steel, $393, but stone work, $477.

Between the different States of the United States there is often a greater difference in wages than between the United States and England. From the census of 1880, taking the total amount paid for wages in the manufacturing industries, and dividing it by the number engaged in those industries we find that the annual average wage earners in the State of Maine in her manufacturing industries was $260, while in Massachusetts it was $364; in Connecticut, $385; in California, $483; in Oregon, $501. But in Georgia it was $211; in North Carolina, $155; in Tennessee, $234; in Pennsylvania, $349.

But if one asks, are not wages higher here than in England? Yes, measured in dollars, wages are higher; but measured in work they are not higher. The reason labor is paid more in the United States is because it earns more. Not a single dollar is paid to our labor, in comparison with the labor of any other country, that is not fully earned by the work it does.

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It is the high priced labor that is the cheapest for the manufacturer. High wages are paid to the man who earns high wages by the greater efficiency of his work. It is the "pauper" labor of Europe and of India which costs the manufacturer the most, which increases the price of his goods. And the reason why a reduction of protective duties will not hurt the American workingman is because his work is so much more efficient than the European "pauper laborer's," that it is actually cheaper to the manufacturers to employ him. But the Republicans insist that labor here, as compared with labor abroad, is paid more than it earns by its work. Let us see what the facts are.

I will take the cotton industry. In his report made to the State Department in August, 1886, after a very careful examination, Consul Schoenhof made a comparison of the cost of labor in manufacturing certain yarns at Fall River, and in Lancashire, England, and he found that the labor cost in making their yarn No. 18, was in Lancashire 52 cents, and in Massachusetts only 40 cents; No. 20 was in Lancashire 50 cents, and in Massachusetts 45 cents; No. 28 was in Lancashire 61 cents, and in Massachusetts 64 cents. He reports that a weaver in America tends from six to eight looms, in England from three to four; that the number of yards a weaver turns out in America is 1,350, and in England 857; that the number of yards of woolen dress-goods a weaver turns out in America is 300, and in England 105, and of cheviot cloth in

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America 120, and in England 80. The same fact is true in other industries, for example, carpets and boots and shoes; invariably our employees do more work, and so get more wages.

Mr. Blaine, in 1881, in his report as Secretary of State, said, "The hours of labor in the Lancashire mills are 56, and in the Massachusetts 60 per week. The hours of labor in the mills in the other New England States, where the wages are generally less than in Massachusetts, are usually 66 to 69 per week. Undoubtedly the inequalities in wages in English and American operatives (that is, in cotton manufactures) are more than equalized by the greater efficiency of the latter, and their longer hours of labor. If this should prove to be a fact in practice, as it seems to me to be proven by official statistics, it would be a very important element in the establishment of our ability to compete with England for our share of the cotton goods trade of the world."

Mr. Evarts, in an official report as Secretary of State, made May 17, 1878, said:

"The average American workman performs from one and a half to twice as much work in a given time as the average European workman." "This is so important a point in connection with our ability to compete with the cheap labor manufacturers of Europe," he adds, that he gives numerous consular reports in support thereof.

That is the reason why we are able to send abroad and sell in competition with the whole world many

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articles in which labor is the principal item of cost, and the raw material is the least; such articles as hardware goods, cutlery, machinery, watches and furniture. We never could do it for a minute if it was not that our labor is more efficient than the foreign labor and, though paid more in dollars, earns every cent that is paid to it.

We pay higher wages because our men earn more. This statement is confirmed by Republican authority. Mr. Charles S. Hill, the statistician of the State Department, in his argument before the tariff commission, pointed out the fact that our manufactured product in 1882 was $8,000,000,000, made by 5,250,000 hands, and that for the same time the product of England was $4,000,000,000, made by 5,140,200 hands; and then he says: "Here is the positive proof that American mechanics, in the aggregate, accomplish exactly double the result of the same number of British mechanics. They are, therefore, very justly paid double in wages."

The Republicans say that these high tariff taxes are needed to equalize the difference between the wages paid here and those paid in Europe, to protect Americans against pauper labor. I have shown that the American workingmen are already protected against pauper labor, because they are more capable, and higher wages are paid them on that very account. But even if the Republican argument were true, let us see how high a tariff tax would be necessary to pay the whole of the wages in our great industries.

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In a report of the Bureau of Statistics, made January 25, 1888, it is stated that the wages paid in the cotton industry are a little over 21 per cent. of the cost of the product, and that the protective tariff is over 40 per cent., or more than double the whole labor cost in that industry. So, in iron and steel manufactures, the labor cost is a little over 18 per cent., and the tariff tax has been more than 40 per cent. In silk goods, the labor cost is a little over 22 per cent., and the tariff tax has been over 50 per cent. In woolen goods the labor cost is about 17 per cent., and the tariff tax has been over 60 per cent.

The average cost of turning out pig iron at eleven American furnaces is given in this report as $13.10 a ton; in eleven European establishments the cost is $10.74, or a difference of $2.36, and this $2.36 is the basis for all the protectionist talk about the small labor cost in the production of European iron. To cover that slight difference — less than the freight rates from Liverpool to New York — protectionist law-makers imposed a duty of $6.72 a ton on foreign pig iron.

There was a duty of 75 cents per ton on coal, yet the entire cost of mining is less than this duty, being from 25 to 60 cents per ton. What becomes, then, of the Republican claim that these protective duties are put on solely for the benefit of the laborer, to make good the difference between the wages paid him here and those paid his foreign competitor?

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The laborer must see that there is an enormous amount of protection here of which he does not get the benefit. How then can it injure the workingman to reduce or take off these duties? When his employer says to him, "If you reduce the tariff, then your wages will be reduced." Ask him how he proves that protection, i. e., the keeping on of the tariff, has increased his wages, and see if he can answer the facts given above.

What, then, does determine wages? Demand and supply and the efficiency of labor. If one laborer can produce more per day than another in another land, other things being equal, he will get higher wages. If there is a greater demand for laborers than the number of laborers competent to perform the work, his wages will be higher than when the number exceeds the demand.

Wages, therefore, are high in this country, not because of protection, but in spite of it. They are high because wages are always higher in a thinly settled country where there is plenty of land and constant demand for labor and constant development of industry, than in an old, densely populated country.

Protection and the Home Market Theory.

The protectionist's final argument is that of the "home market." Protection, he says, builds up new industries in this country, develops new trades, gives employment to new men, stops our purchases

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abroad and compels Americans to buy their goods in their own country.

There is no doubt that protection may diversify industries. There is no doubt that with a sufficiently high tariff almost any industry can be built up here. Shut out the foreigner, increase the price of an article so that the producer may make a large enough profit, and you may build up a tea industry here which will employ men and give profit to capitalists. But at what cost? The question to be answered by those who have to buy the goods of that industry established by virtue of a protective duty is, is it worth while? Ought a whole nation to be taxed and compelled to pay a higher price for an article simply to build up one special business?

Take the tin plate industry as an example. In 1890 we imported $21,000,000 worth of tin plate on which the duty was $7,000,000. McKinley said: "Increase the duty to $16,000,000 and we will establish a tin plate industry in this country giving employment to 24,000 men. By thus producing our tin plate at home, we will save $21,000,000 which we now send abroad." On the contrary, the loss of wealth is all the other way. When we buy tin plate abroad we pay for it by means of goods which we raise or manufacture. If we cease to import we cease to export at the same time, and a home market rigidly enforced would mean distress and destruction, because it would throw all our surplus crops and

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manufacture, which we now sell abroad, upon our own already fully supplied markets.

Now these 24,000 whom McKinley was going to employ in the home tin plate industry, if unrestricted, would go into other business. If they can produce tin plates at a cost of $37,000,000 ($21,000,000 cost, plus $16,000,000 duty), they can produce $37,000,000 of wheat or of some manufactured goods which we can make more advantageously, If they export this and sell it they can then go abroad, buy tin plate for $21,000,000, bring it to New York, and if there is no duty, have $16,000,000 of gold exchanges left to expend for additional products of domestic manufacture. Instead of benefiting the country, then, by building up a new industry, the protectionist, by imposing a tax on tin plate, will have destroyed a yearly profit on trade of $16,000,000, and will have reduced the output and prevented the encouragement of other industries in which we have an advantage

General Considerations.

The Democratic party says that the Republican argument for a high tariff built on the home market theory is that men are induced to embark in industries which they could not maintain in equal competition with the rest of the world without such protection. But since there are many other trades and industries in which they can defy competition, the adoption of a protective policy operates to divert capital

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from fields where it is most productive to fields where it is less productive. It therefore seems to be a sounder policy to encourage production where the natural conditions of this country will permit it and to allow people to produce freely that which they can produce cheapest and best.

To sum up, we maintain that a McKinley high tariff discourages trade, raises the cost of our products, taxes their material, limits the demand, and fosters trusts. It substitutes enormous profits in a limited market for a legitimate and healthy growth. It causes over-production, but furnishes no outlet for it. It burdens the people through abuse of the power of taxation, and makes the basis of law privileges instead of rights, and its controlling influences selfish interests instead of justice, equality, and the public welfare.

We maintain that there is no general interest either of consumer, wage-earner, or manufacturer, that will not be benefited by a reduction of taxation.

But the issue of tax reduction is a principle broader than any principle of taxation; it is the principle of equality under the law.

The one great evil in public life to-day is the selfish, grasping influence of wealth, that, seizing political power, uses it for its own purposes, that asserts the right to tax the whole people for its benefit, that creates a high tariff under which greedy trusts prey upon the people's pockets, that turns the people's law against the people's interests.

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Because this reform means something more than any question of revenue or taxation, because it involves the fundamental principles of sound democratic government, and seeks to limit the power of government to public and to proper purposes, it is the most important question of the day — it is the people's cause. Its final triumph is death to the control by organized wealth of elections and legislation, a restoration of political power to the people, and a guarantee that the people's law shall be used only for the people's interests.

To the man or party accomplishing this great work may well be applied those memorable words uttered by Sir. Robert Peel, in closing the debate on the repeal of the Corn Laws: "I shall leave a name execrated by every monopolist who clamors for protection, because it conduces to his own individual benefit; but it may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of good-will, in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labor and to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a measure of injustice."



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The Tariff Question from a Republican Standpoint.

By WM. McKINLEY,
GOVERNOR OF OHIO.

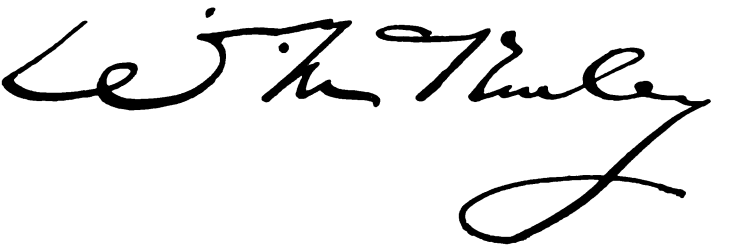
IT takes more than a million dollars each day to run the United States government. This vast sum must be raised by taxation in some form, and it is generally agreed that the expenses of running the government must for the most part be raised by a tariff. There are two kinds of tariffs — revenue and protective. In America a revenue tariff is synonymous with free trade. It is difficult to distinguish between them, and for all practical purposes they are the same.

The advocates of a revenue tariff insist that duties shall be levied upon foreign products which, for the most part, are not produced in the United States, the principle being that revenue should be the sole object of tariff taxation. This theory is borrowed from England. Large revenues can be secured by levying duties upon those foreign products that have little or no home competition. A revenue tariff does nothing but produce revenue, and cares only for

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revenue. It does not encourage any domestic enterprise, new or old. To speak of a "tariff-for-revenue-only, with incidental protection," is a contradiction not only of terms, but principles. A low tariff upon a foreign product, which competes with a home product, would to a small degree favor the domestic industry, but when it does that it ceases to be a tariff-for-revenue-only, because it gives some protection to the domestic producer. According to the free trade maxim, "where protection begins, there revenue ends," and the question of revenue to revenue reformers is all-controlling. The lower the tariff the larger must be the importations to raise a given amount of revenue. A revenue tariff upon competing products can therefore have but one effect—that of opening our markets to the foreign producer, impoverishing the home producer and enriching his foreign rival.

If the effect of any tariff is to induce large importations of articles that otherwise would have been produced at home, then such a tariff must necessarily benefit the foreign producer and injure the American producer. It is inevitable that the greater the importation of a competing article the less will be the home production of that article.

A tariff-for-revenue-only, or free trade, admits the foreigner to our markets on equal privileges with the citizen of our own country, although the former represents cheap and often degraded labor, whilst the latter represents the best paid and most intelligent

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labor in the world. In other words, that policy gives our business, our work, our money, our manufactures, our markets, to other nations, to the manifest injury of our own people.

The consumer always pays a revenue tariff. He pays the original selling price of the article with the tariff added to it. This is true, because there is little or no home product to compete with the foreign product and influence its price. The foreigner controls the market and can therefore dictate his own price.

The contention between these tariff polices, the American system of protection to home industry, as contrasted with the English policy of free trade, was commenced at the very beginning of our existence as a Nation. But it is with the controversy as it has been waged since the close of the war of the Rebellion that we are more directly concerned. Since then four general tariff measures have been proposed in Congress by the advocates of free trade, all of which, however, were as unlike as the American tariff was unlike the English tariff, but all held to the idea that a revenue tariff should be the controlling policy of this government. As time elapsed the advocates of this idea grew bolder and bolder, until instead of some degree of protection to our wage-earners being admitted as indispensable to our prosperity, all such protection was denounced as "fraudulent" and "unconstitutional" and "the culminating atrocity of class legislation."

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In the Forty-seventh Congress, Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, of New York, an eminent member of the Democratic party, then in control of the House of Representatives, admitted that there were branches of American industry which could not be carried on, at our scale of wages, in competition with the wages paid abroad, without equivalent compensation in the form of protective duties, or of a bounty from the public treasury. He put the difference of wages in Great Britain and the United States as being fifty per cent. higher here than there. In a letter to Jay Gould, in 1870, Mr. Hewitt observed: "Free trade will simply reduce the wages of our labor to the foreign standard." He subsequently explained that he applied this declaration merely to protected industries, but his explanation did not destroy the force of his remark; indeed, it only vindicated what was then and is still the claim of the protectionists.

It is much more difficult for labor to secure an increase of wages than it is to prevent a decrease. The immediate effect of a decrease of duties on a competing foreign product is to increase the importation of that foreign product, and to that extent supplant the domestic product. It is axiomatic that with no work, comes no wages. To a proportionate degree it holds good that with little work comes less and lower wages. We have the lamp of experience to guide our steps in such legislation. It is the truth of history that the periods in our National career in which a revenue tariff has been the economic policy

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of the Government have been the periods of the greatest financial revulsions, and industrial decadence, want and poverty. From 1833 to 1842, a low tariff period, business was at a stand-still; our merchants and traders were bankrupt; our industries were paralyzed; our labor was idle, and our capital was unemployed. Foreign products crowded the American market; home competition was destroyed and the prices of household necessities were raised.

Again from 1847 to 1861, another period in which a tariff-for-revenue-only prevailed, business was universally depressed, and the people at large were most disastrously affected in all their resources and financial operations.

It is sometimes claimed by a partisan press and the advocates of free trade, that this country enjoyed great and exceptional prosperity from 1850 to 1860. But this claim is easily proven false and misleading. It is only true that there could hardly have been a more favorable period in which to attempt the foolhardy experiment of free trade with foreign nations; but as to the disastrous effects of the free trade policy, even then there can be no contention. Let us recite the plain historical facts: The so-called Walker revenue tariff law went into effect about the time of the breaking out of the Mexican war, on account of which the United States government disbursed among our people more than $100,000,000. Then the famine in Ireland took every surplus product of American agriculture. Next came the dis-

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covery of gold in California, and then the Revolution of 1848. Then there was the great Crimean war in which France, England and Russia were engaged, and which for two and one-half years paralyzed their industries and made an unparalleled demand for the products of American farms and factories. Yet, with all these helps, phenomenal as they were, at the beginning of the year 1857, and even before, and thence on to the repeal of the Walker law, our country, its business, its occupations, its finances and its credits, was in a most deplorable condition.

The revenue tariff law of 1846 did much to produce the great panic of 1857, recollections of which are still vivid in the minds of thousands of its victims. The pecuniary distress was so great, and the need of relief so apparent, that President Buchanan felt constrained to appeal to Congress to do all in its power "to increase the confidence of the manufacturing interests and give a fresh impulse to business." His picture of the condition of the times may well be recalled in this connection. He said that "in the midst of unsurpassed plenty in all the productions and elements of national wealth, we find our manufactures suspended, our public works retarded, our private enterprises of different kinds abandoned, and thousands of useful laborers thrown out of employment and reduced to want." Then came the admission, which must inevitably be made whenever the tariff for revenue policy is adopted, that "the same causes which have produced pecu-

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niary distress throughout the country have so reduced the amount of imports from foreign countries that the revenue has proved inadequate to meet the necessary expenses of the government.

With these plain facts of history in mind, let us consider the object and effects of the protective tariff policy, which was so happily christened by Henry Clay, many years ago, as "the American system."

A protective tariff is a tariff imposed upon a foreign product with the object of raising revenue, and also of encouraging the domestic manufacture of a like product, and of protecting the home workman from the competition of the lower-paid foreign workman. The tariff should equal in amount the difference between the wages paid abroad and the wages paid at home. In the case of a proposed new industry to be encouraged by protection — such, for example, as that of tin-plate making under the law of 1890 — the tariff should be high enough to permit the payment of the American scale of wages, so that the home and the foreign product can meet in competition in this market upon equal terms.

Protection is, as Burke said of liberty, for "all or for none, and only perfect when universal." It must apply to all interests requiring the fostering care and encouragement of the government. It must be for the benefit of all classes, and all portions of our country. It must be for all within the principle, or none. It is the true National policy and should be as non-partisan as it is non-sectional. It deserves to

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be as firmly supported by one party as another, because it sustains "the American system," founded without controversy by our forefathers, and maintained by them without party division for the first twenty-five years of our national existence.

The protective policy is more than an expedient, it is a system, a principle of government. The question of schedules is a matter of detail. Schedules may and should vary at different times and yet the protective principle remain constant and intact. When it is found by experience that the tariff on a certain article is more than enough to make up the difference between the wages paid abroad and the wages paid in the United States, then there can and should be a reduction of the tariff without doing any violence to the protective principle; but when experience demonstrates the wisdom of a revision of the tariff, that revision should be made by the friends and not by the enemies of the protective system.

The protective tariff does more than raise revenue. The revenue tariff does nothing else, aims at nothing else. The protective policy permits foreign non-competing products, except luxuries, to come into our markets free, but imposes duties upon those foreign products which we produce at home or propose to produce at home, which duties, while raising revenue, discriminate in favor of the domestic producer.

We put a tariff upon foreign products for the double purpose of raising revenue to pay the running expenses of our government and of protecting

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our people against the destructive effects of foreign competition. In doing this we are guilty of no wrong to the foreign producer. We have the right to discriminate in favor of our own people, and it is our duty to do so. Our government is supported by and for our people, not for the benefit of those who are not subject to its laws, or who do not contribute to its support. Every country must legislate for itself, according to its own peculiar conditions, geographical, political and social. It is the right, province and duty of every nation to look to its own interests. In adopting the principle of protection, the American people are simply caring for themselves. Self-protection is not confined to individuals or families. It applies as well to nations — for what is a nation but an aggregation of individuals and families? As a rule, the nation that does the best by its own citizens, does the best for humanity in general. Within the jurisdiction of its flag every country has the supreme and exclusive control of its own fiscal affairs. What shall be said of that statesmanship which closes our own factories and leaves idle our own citizens to kindle the fires of the factories and enrich the manufacturers of foreign countries?

The protective system is the true American system. It is the system of the fathers. A great majority of the great names in American history are found upon the roll of those favoring protection. The doctrine was recognized as our National policy in the second act passed by the Congress of the United States. It

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was, indeed, the first great legislative declaration under the Federal constitution, the only law preceding it being one fixing the oath of office of certain Federal officials. Washington approved that act. Its author was James Madison, of Virginia, "the Father of the Constitution," and the majority of men voting for it had assisted in framing or adopting that constitution. Hamilton, Adams, Jefferson, Monroe, Jackson, Clay, Webster, the younger Adams, Fillmore, Lincoln, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Blaine, and Harrison were all on the side of protection. Even Calhoun was a protectionist until he made the discovery that protection was inimical to slave labor, and that, under the beneficent sway of protection, strong, prosperous and freedom-loving communities had grown up in the North, a standing menace to the institution of slavery.

The discussion of the antagonistic tariff policies leads us naturally to consider, in view of the matchless progress we have made under protective tariff laws, the objections that are urged against a system that has brought us such unparalleled prosperity. What reasons can any American urge for the abandonment of so wise and beneficent a system? They are invariably insincere and futile.

It is sometimes claimed that protection destroys competition and seeks to monopolize the home market for our manufactures, regardless of the best interests of the masses. Far from this being true, the protectionist expects and invites the fullest and freest

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competition in all the lines of domestic manufacture and avenues of business. He encourages the theory that "competition is the life of trade," and points triumphantly to the fact that home competition always brings prices to a fair and reasonable level. Success, or even apparent or prospective success, in any business or enterprise, will incite others to engage in like business or enterprise; then follows healthful competition, and that inevitably results in cheapening the articles produced.

The protective policy is not only better for the American mechanic; it is better for the American farmer. What the farmer wants is not more farmers, but more consumers. If the American market is glutted with foreign products, there is that much less work for American operatives; and when the American operative is not employed, he can not consume the products of American farms. Without work at his own calling, the American operative must, as a last resort, go to the land. Then the American farmer has to face competitors who have hitherto been consumers.

Agriculture is prosperous only when there is an active demand for the products of the farm. The home market is much better for the American farmer than the foreign market. This is so self-evident that, despite the outcry of the free traders about "the markets of the world," it seems unnecessary to present arguments to sustain the assertion. The home market is steadier, more reliable and more profitable

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than the foreign market. Without the home market there is no demand for the products of the truck farm. The home market creates a demand for fruits and vegetables that will not bear exportation. Prior to the enactment of the tariff law of 1894 the workingmen in the American shops consumed annually more than ninety dollars' worth of the agricultural products of the American farmer, as compared with the less than five dollars' worth of his products that were consumed by the foreign workingmen. The American consumer, therefore, is eighteen times a better customer to the American farmer than the foreign consumer; and the American market is relatively eighteen times a better market for the American farmer than the foreign market is. This delusion about the great advantages that would accrue to the American people "if we would only go out and possess the markets of the world" has been aptly described as "a great free trade shadow dance." The more our people think and know of this question the less attractive the world's markets become and the more substantial the home market grows.

The American farmer is subject to a continuously increasing competition for the foreign market. The American farmer must not only compete with the broad and fertile fields of the Canadian Northwest, but with immense tracts of productive lands in Russia, India and Asia, and almost equally vast areas in Africa and Australia, in all of which the products of the farm, not only cereals but livestock,

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can be raised cheaper than in the United States, because in all of these countries land and labor are cheaper, and in some of them there are equal climatic advantages. A quarter of a century ago this competition was only a matter of speculation. Now it is a factor of constantly increasing importance in American labor problems and civilization.

Those who talk about the foreign market as a commercial prize, in comparison with which the home market is a small thing, apparently do not realize or properly appreciate the fact that the internal commerce of the United States is greater than the foreign commerce of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Holland, Belgium and Austro-Hungary combined. One of our great American railroads carries more freight in a single year than all the merchant ships of Great Britain together carry. We have more miles of railroad than all Europe, Asia, Africa and Australasia combined. The floating tonnage of the United States, engaged in coastwise commerce, and on our lakes and rivers, is very far in excess of that of any other nation. One or two comparisons will convey some idea of this stupendous commerce. The tonnage which passed through the Detroit river alone during the 234 days of navigation in 1889 exceeded by 2,463,127 tons the entire British and foreign tonnage which entered and closed at London and Liverpool that year in the foreign and coastwise trade. The freight which passed through the St Mary's Falls canal during the season of about

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230 days in 1890 exceeded by 2,257,876 tons the entire tonnage of all nations which passed through the Suez canal during the 265 days of the season of 1889. The freight carried on the railroads of the United States in 1890 exceeded by over 36,000,000 tons the aggregate carried on all the railroads of the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Russia in 1889. Commodities are interchanged among our own people with greater facility and at cheaper rates, distance considered, than in any other country on earth.

The increase of national wealth and prosperity, largely due to our system of protection to our home markets and domestic trade, has become the marvel of the world. Take a few comparisons, based upon the United States census of 1880, and upon figures furnished by Mr. Mulhall, the English statistician: In manufacturing we exceeded Great Britain in 1880 by $1,579,570,191, France by $2,115,000,000, and Germany by $2,305,000,000. In products of agriculture we excelled Great Britain by $1,425,000,000, France by $625,000,000, and Germany by $925,000,000.

Our earnings or income for 1880, from commerce, agriculture, mining, manufactures, the carrying trade and banking, exceeded those of Great Britain from the same sources by $1,250,000,000, France by $2,395,000,000, and Germany by $2,775,000,000. Our increase of wealth from 1870 to 1880, as compared with that of other nations, was as follows: United States, $13,573,481,493; Great Britain, $3,-

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250,000,000; France, $1,475,000,000; Germany, $3,625,000,000. In 1880 our home markets consumed about $10,000,000,000 worth of our own products, an amount equal to the entire accumulated wealth of Spain, three times the increase of wealth in Great Britain for ten years, and seven times the increase of France for the same period. Our home markets that year absorbed five times as much of our manufacturing products as Great Britain exported of hers to all the markets of the world.

Yet, it is now proposed by the free traders to open this home market, the best in the world, to the free entry of the products of the foreigner without any reciprocal compensation whatever. Did ever such madness possess any party of any other country at any period in the world's history?

Under a protective tariff we were able to prosecute the war for the suppression of the rebellion to a triumphant conclusion. Since then it has enabled us to undertake vast internal improvements, and to diminish with unexampled facility our enormous public debt. Under a protective tariff the balance of trade has been nearly always in our favor to a very remarkable extent; while that balance has always been against us under a revenue tariff, with but few and unimportant exceptions. During the twenty-two years previous to 1890 our exports trebled and our imports doubled. This was under a protective tariff. Under the tariff of 1890 our export trade increased fifteen and one-half per cent; in the same year (1891)

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the export trade of Great Britain decreased five and one-half per cent. From 1847 to 1861, under a free trade revenue tariff, there was a balance of trade against us of $431,000,000. During the whole of these fifteen years there were only two years when the balance of trade was in our favor. From 1876 to 1891, a period of fifteen years, when we were under the protective system, there were only two years when the balance of trade was against us. During the other thirteen years the balance of trade in our favor was $1,649,445,246. In other words, a comparison of fifteen years under free trade, or a revenue tariff, with fifteen years under a protective tariff, shows to the advantage of protection in the enormous sum of $2,080,445,246.

In 1858 the United States procured from abroad most of the manufactured articles which it consumed, and they cost more then than they have ever cost since. Under protection we have manufactured most of the articles we have consumed, the price has steadily decreased, and we have risen to the position of the second largest exporting nation in the world. Before the recent changes of our tariff laws, our export trade was increasing at a greater rate than that of any other country. Now it already shows a large decrease in volume, with a steady decline against us.

Free traders affect great concern about the prices of manufactured goods. Why, nothing can be cheap to the American people which enforces idleness

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among our workmen, and brings with it the failure to make the most of our own rich stores of raw material. And here again the advocates of free trade attempt gross deception. It is urged that we should have "free raw materials" in order to enable us to produce articles cheap enough to compete for the "markets of the world." Why, under the protective law of 1890 there was, practically, free trade in raw materials for the production of articles for export. It granted a drawback of ninety-nine per cent. of the duties paid on such raw materials as were used for the manufacture of articles for export. This system of drawbacks is an old one, dating back to the administration of Washington; but the law of 1890 increased the drawback from ninety to ninety-nine per cent., the government retaining but one per cent. for the expense of handling the goods entering our custom houses. The law of 1890 also applied the drawback provision to all articles imported to be finished here for use in the foreign market, so that imported raw materials were freer than they had ever before been in this or any other country to the manufacturers who felt obliged to have them. The only thing insisted upon, and required by the law, was that the imported raw materials should be honestly used, exclusively for the export trade.

The opponents of the protective system argue finally, that the American consumer should be allowed the privilege of purchasing foreign articles for the reason that they are cheaper than American-made

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articles. "Buy where you can buy the cheapest," is their motto. But cheapness should never be our first, or even chief consideration, either as individuals or a nation. Cheapness is a relative term. What may be cheap in dollars and cents may be dear so far as the ability of the consumer to buy is concerned. If an article is sold at a dollar and the would-be purchaser gets only seventy-five cents for his day's labor, then the article is not as cheap to him as if the price were $1.25 and he was given $1.50 for the same labor. It not infrequently happens that when things are the cheapest, consumers are the poorest. It is historically true, in America, at least, that when goods were the cheapest, men were the poorest. Nothing is cheap which comes from abroad if it displaces a day's employment needed for the support of an American workingman or his family. Anything is dear if the man who makes it is not enabled to make a decent living in producing it.

If we proceed upon these lines industry will be quickened and our whole people will feel the impulse of a new and enduring prosperity.

The practical operations of the protective system as to manufactured products have been not only to cheapen in dollars and cents the cost of the article consumed, but to maintain along with this cheapening of articles the old standard of fair wages, with a tendency upward. There is the highest authority for this assertion. Mr. Edward Atkinson, an admitted authority, who is not friendly to the protective

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system, writing at a period when a protective law was in operation, declared:

"The share of the actual product which is now falling to the workingman, in the strictest sense, is a bigger share of a bigger product than workingmen have ever attained before in this or any other country."

The same gentleman made a more remarkable admission in the *Forum* for May, 1892, in writing about wage conditions in the United States. He said:

"There has never been a period in this or in any other country when the general rate of wages was as high as it is now, or the price of goods relatively to the wages as low as they are to-day, nor a period when the workingman, in the strictest sense of the word, has so fully secured to his own use and enjoyment such a steadily and progressively increasing proportion of a constantly increasing product."

He subsequently said in the Boston *Herald*:

"Since 1880 there has been a marked increase in the rate of wages or earnings of all occupations of every kind above the grade of common laborers. So far as the writer has been able to obtain the data, this advance in rates of wages may be estimated at from ten to thirty per cent, as compared with the rates of 1880, the proportionate advance in each case being in ratio to the relative skill required in the work. The wages of the common laborer have not advanced very much, but he has been rendered able

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to buy more for his wages on account of the reduction in prices. The skilled laborer has secured the highest rate of wages ever known in this or any other country, and can also buy more for each dollar. The advocate of free trade who denies this advance makes a mistake."

The testimony of Mr. Atkinson was abundantly corroborated in 1892 by the Labor Bureaus of the different States; by statistics published by the United States government; and by the investigation of a special bi-partisan committee of the United States Senate. But the people themselves do not need the testimony of political economists or statisticians to demonstrate to them what they know from their own experience. Every workingman is his own best judge as to his true financial condition.

Dun's Review of Trade, in December, 1892, declared: "The year 1892 has been the most prosperous ever known in business." Was not this the universal observation of the American people? This prosperity existed under the protective tariff law of 1890, just as our most abundant prosperity had always existed under previous protective tariff enactments.

The direct relation of labor and wages to the tariff has been clearly demonstrated by the every-day experience of our people. Not only has the protective tariff had the effect of increasing, or at least maintaining wages, but labor has been the first to feel the sad effects of a decrease of duties, result-

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ing in increased importations of articles that had been produced at home. One of the silly and threadbare arguments sometimes urged against a protective tariff is to say "there are strikes for higher wages under protection." So there are, and probably ever will be. There are strikes in England; indeed, England is the mother of strikes, as she is the mother of free trade. Protection is not a cure for all labor and social problems. There are questions of grave importance affecting the relations of capital and labor, and bearing upon the social condition of the masses, which have nothing at all to do with the fiscal policy of the country, whether it be that of protection or free trade. Still it can be fairly claimed that in bringing more work and better wages to the masses, the protective system gives the workman a better chance in the settlement of the problems that most affect his livelihood and political and social conditions.

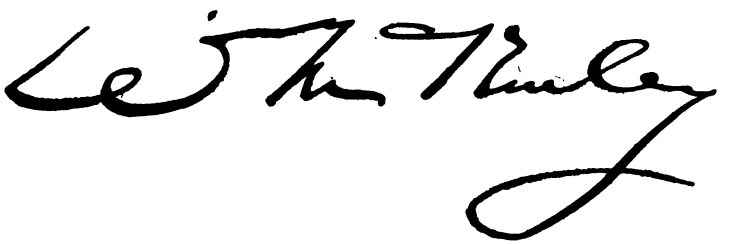
Why does the foreign producer take such an interest in the fiscal policy of the United States? Why does he rejoice at the overthrow of our protective system? The reason is apparent even to the most prejudiced observer. When free trade, or a revenue tariff prevails in the United States, the foreign factory is busy supplying the American market, and the American factory has little or nothing to do.

Protection not only directly benefits the great industries of the country by making it possible to sustain existing factories and to establish new ones, and thereby furnish constant and increasing employment

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to labor, but it makes a steady demand for raw materials of every kind and character, which, but for our manufacturing enterprises at home, would be practically useless, and without value. Protection keeps money and markets at home for the benefit of our own people.

In short, the protective policy means American markets for American products, American workshops for American workmen, and the highest material prosperity and civilization for the American people.



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Gold and Silver.

By THOMAS L. JAMES,

EX-POSTMASTER-GENERAL — PRESIDENT OF LINCOLN NATIONAL BANK, NEW YORK.

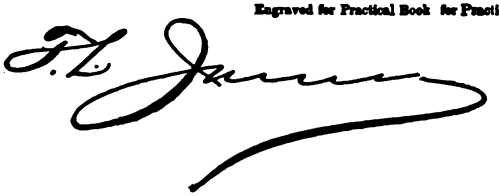
GOLD has been known from the very earliest times. In the second chapter of Genesis, where a description is given of the Garden of Eden, mention is made of a land "where there is gold." But the precious metal was first used for ornaments. (Gen. 24: 22.) When first used for commercial purposes it was weighed in rings; it was not until a comparatively late period that coined money was known to the ancients. Among the early Egyptians the standard of value was a piece of copper, made in the form of bricks and circulated by weight. Gold and silver were also used in the same manner, though less frequently, and made in the form of rings, a method of coinage which was employed in Ireland down to the twelfth century, and which is still in vogue in some of the interior countries of Africa. In ancient Babylonia and Assyria, the precious metals were taken by weight and verified by the balance of scales, just the same as any other merchandise.

The very early references to coins in the Bible are said, by scholars, to refer to Persian money, which

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was struck in the fifth century B. C. Very much earlier than this date, however, we read that Abimelech gave Abraham "a thousand pieces of silver" in expiation of his treatment of Sarah; and, again, that Joseph was sold to the Ishmaelites for "twenty pieces of silver." There is doubt about the meaning of this word; some critics say it refers to shekels.

Gold is found in solid rocks combined with other substances, in veins, and at the bottoms of rivers, or streams, the currents of which have brought it down from higher altitudes. The methods of extracting it vary according to the character of the deposit. The refuse is removed by a mechanical process, shaken out in a circular sheet-iron dish with sloping sides, or, when the quantity is large, a contrivance like a child's cradle is used. When the material comes down from the mountain in a stream, the debris is separated by means of troughs, upon which riffles or strips of wood are placed. Hydraulic mining is one of the modern methods, jets of water, descending from a great height, being forced into the banks and beds containing the precious metal.

Silver, which is usually alloyed, is found in masses and in fine threads which have the appearance of metallic twigs and branches. There is a mass in the royal collection at Copenhagen which weighs over 500 pounds; another, found in Peru, weighed over 800 pounds, and one found in Sonora, Mexico, is said to have weighed 2,700 pounds.

Among the silver-producing countries, the United

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States stands first, and, with Mexico and Bolivia, furnishes four-fifths of the entire product. Germany, Chili and Spain follow in the order of production.

The principal silver coins in use in the leading European countries are: Austria, the florin (45c); Belgium, five franc (91c); Denmark, crown ($1.03); England, shilling (21c); France, one franc (18c), and five franc (91c); Germany, five marks (91c); Greece, five drachms (82c); Italy, five lire (91c); Netherlands, 2 1-2 guilders (96c); Norway, specie daler ($1.93); Portugal, 500 reis (46c); Russia, ruble (74c); Spain, five pesetas (91c); Sweden, riksdaler (26c); Switzerland, two francs (33c), and Turkey, twenty piasters (81c).

Probably the most interesting feature connected with gold, certainly to American readers, is its discovery in California in 1848. It is a curious fact that the precious metal, so much prized and so much used in all parts of the world — the cosmopolitan metal — was found on the land of a man, who in the matter of birth and residence, should claim to be a cosmopolitan of the first rank. This man, John A. Sutter, was a Swiss by parentage; a German by the place of his birth in Baden; an American by residence and naturalization in Missouri, and a Mexican by subsequent residence and naturalization in California.

In 1839 he had settled at the junction of the Sacramento and American rivers, near the site of the present city of Sacramento. Sutter's ranch at this point was the headquarters for all the immigrants

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coming from the eastern States. Here they would stop and rest after their toilsome march across the desert, and purchase fresh supplies of food and clothing before continuing their journey to their special points of destination in the interior.

In his capacity as primitive hotel proprietor, or tavern-keeper, Mr. Sutter found that the Americans were not satisfied with his antiquated Mexican method of crushing grain by hand between two stones. He found that he would be compelled to build a flour-mill to grind the wheat which he cultivated on his farm in great quantity. He also determined to build a saw-mill, which was located in the mountains because there was no good timber in the valleys. These buildings were erected by James W. Marshall, a native of the State of New Jersey, who is said to have been "cranky," impracticable in his business methods and full of strange notions. For all that he is the man who discovered gold in California.

One of the workmen around the mill was in the habit of keeping a diary, jotting down, from time to time, what he deemed to be the important occurrences of the day. Thanks to this little diary we know the exact time when gold was discovered in California. His record of the fact is as follows:

"Monday, 24th — This day some kind of mettle was found in the tail race that looks like goald, first discovered by James Martial the boss of the mill.

"Sunday, 30th — Clear and has been all the last week. Our metal has been tride and proved to be

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goald It is thought to be rich We have pict up more than a hundred dollars worth last week. February, 1848."

The California mines are said to have yielded in three years gold to the value of $175,000,000. The Australian mines yielded in the same period $100,000,000. The effect of this enormous out-put of gold on countries where silver was the standard of value was the adoption of a gold standard. In this way the silver coinage and reserve were displaced; a change was made in the mint operations of England and France. In the latter country silver is a legal tender to a modified degree: in England the proportion of silver once authorized has long since disappeared from the bullion reserve, which now consists wholly of gold.

The German Emperor, at the close of the war 1870–71, made gold the sole standard and dislodged the old silver money of the German States.

An interesting fact in connection with the precious metal is, that just before this article was sent to the press, the largest shipment of gold ore ever sent in one train to the smeltery, either in this or any other country (viz., $1,000,000), was made from Denver, Colorado. It was sent from the "Independence" mine, owned by W. S. Stratton, a typical western mining speculator, who started life as a carpenter, made and lost money by his investments until eventually, to use the Western expression, "He struck it

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rich" and became the owner of the "Independence" mine, which is now valued at $5,000,000.

The proverbs of the world which are said to be, "The public voice, coined first, and common made by common choice," throw considerable light on the precious metals from the human and sociological points of view.

The power of gold is thus tersely indicated: "Before gold, even kings take off their hats." "Gold is the best mediator." "Gold rules the court, the camp, the grave, and married men and men in love." "If the walls were adamant, gold would take the town." "There is no better friend in misfortune than gold." "There is no lock one cannot open with a golden key." "Where gold chinks, arguments are of no avail." "A silver hammer breaks an iron door," and "Fight with silver spurs and you will overcome everything."

To prove that gold, valuable as it is, is not a cure for all the ills of life, we have: "A gold ring does not cure a felon." "A golden bit makes none the better horse," and "A golden gallows is still but a gallows."

On the other hand, the uselessness of the precious metal in its relation to religion and character are thus sententiously set forth: "A golden key opens every door save that of heaven." "Gold and goods may be lost; a good name endures forever." "Gold goes through all doors except heaven's doors," and "Gold is the snare of the soul."

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Unfortunate people who cannot get gold, and cynics generally, comfort themselves with such reflections as, "A great load of gold is more burdensome than a light load of gravel." "Better whole than patched with gold." "He who has gold has fear; who has none has sorrow." "Gold is the devil's fish-hook." While the scholarly Petrarch summed up the argument in this way: "He who expends gold properly is its master; who lays it up, its keeper; who loves it, a fool; who adores it, an idolater; the truly wise man is he who despises it."

I have made no attempt in this article to discuss what is generally called "The Financial Question," because my space is limited and the subject is of such far-reaching importance, that he who seeks to mold public opinion, should, with due regard to propriety, do so only after long and careful study of the matter. Such discussion would involve, at the very beginning, an argument on the fundamental question underlying all finance, to wit: "What is money?" The political economists, the philosophers and the doctrinaires have been writing about this question almost since the precious metals have been used as a medium of exchange; and, it may be said, that about the only point upon which they all agree is the undisputed fact, that money is a convenient commodity to have. Then they all part company, each one proclaiming his belief as to what really is money, and each one, it may be added, eager and glad to obtain the coin of the realm, or its substitute,

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for such services as he is able to render to the community. As a well-known writer says: "Money is a word in continual use all over the civilized world, and perhaps there is none the meaning of which in connection with the business they have in hand is more distinctly understood by those who use it; and, yet, on the other hand, there is none of which it is more difficult to give a comprehensive account or a strict definition." Under these circumstances, I can be well excused (and the reader can be happily spared) a description of the financial question, when, so to speak, the very threshold of the edifice is as large as the building itself.

There is one remarkable fact, however, connected with this discussion, and that is that the production of gold has increased so much during this contest between the so-called "Gold-bugs" and the Silverites; and such an increased value has been placed upon it, that many able financiers contend that the effect will be to make the white metal more valuable as a standard of value. After the discovery of gold in California and Australia, the price of silver increased; but when, in our country, the Comstock mines were discovered and it was shown how easy silver could be mined, it became reduced in value, until it is cheaper than it has ever been in the history of the world. With the development of new gold mines and the extraction of the ore by modern appliances (steam-drills, etc.), some thinkers believe that the financial question will be settled by itself, and before

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our law-makers have come to a conclusion in regard to the matter. This is a consummation devoutly to be wished for; and, judging from recent congressional experience, it would not be presumptuous to say that it may come about.



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Engraved for Practical Book for Practical People.

J. K. Upton

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The Silver Question.

By J. K. UPTON.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY UNDER SECRETARIES SHERMAN, WINDOM AND FOLGER.

Dec. 21, 1894.

Mr. H. A. Lewis:

Dear Sir,

Mr. Upton has prepared an excellent statement of the silver question which I have read and heartily approve. As a whole it expresses the views I have long entertained upon that subject.

Very truly yours

J. Sherman

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TO establish standards by which the dimensions or weight of material objects could be ascertained and expressed, engaged the best wit of mankind for a long period.

Only by resort to most exact scientific processes have our present standards been established upon a basis as permanent, unchangeable and indestructible as the laws of gravitation and the revolution of the earth.

Unfortunately no standard of value having such certain and stable properties has been provided by nature. The holder of a commodity will part with it only upon terms which may suit his necessities, whim, or caprice, consequently there are as many standards of value as there are holders of commodities.

Could commodities be exchanged direct, article for article, no need of a value standard would exist. But only to a limited extent are such changes practicable, and the necessities of trade long ago led to the interposition of a third commodity in the desired exchange, known as money. From the earliest times silver, and from more recent date gold, have been used for this purpose. These two metals, more than any other commodities, possess certain attributes peculiarly fitting them for such duty. They are but little affected by exposure to the elements; they submit readily to any form required, and lose little or nothing by melting. They can be broken or cut in pieces without loss; they possess a value relative to weight,

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neither too great nor too minute, and for them there is everywhere a demand for use in the arts, which is comparatively uniform and certain. For these reasons, holders of commodities anywhere will part with their holdings for either of these two metals, knowing that they can at their pleasure obtain for it any other commodity they may desire.

When Abraham bought the cave of Machpelah he paid for it in silver of current weight among the merchants. It was a simple and honest transaction, and one doubtless advantageous to both parties. If, later, human laws had not interfered, like exchanges would have gone on uninterrupted from that time to this — all differences being adjusted, each case by itself and by the parties thereto. But in an unwise moment the law attempted to control such transactions, and legislators have since been busy regulating and fixing the rates of the two metals to each other, and to other commodities with the only practical result that in the end somebody has been cheated.

One device was to make the coin a legal tender in payment of debt, then reduce its weight, but keep its debt-paying power unchanged; another, to give the same name to a coin of each metal of fixed weight, and leave to the debtor his option which to use in satisfaction of his obligation, a plan familiarly known as bi-metalism.

The treatment by Parliament of the pound sterling illustrates this first method of interference. Originally, the pound in value was a pound in weight of

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pure silver. Out of this amount of metal, twenty pieces of even weight were authorized to be coined, to be known as shillings. King Edward III, however, pressed for means to pay his royal debts, directed that a pound of silver should be coined into twenty-two pieces instead of twenty, each piece a legal tender for a shilling, as before. In this way the crown gained for its own private use two shillings out of every twenty-two coined. The successors of this king repeated the operation from time to time, as their needs demanded, until Queen Elizabeth directed that sixty-two pieces be coined from the pound, making the shilling less than one-third of its original weight. Yet, all this time, the piece was doing duty in paying debts at its original valuation. Violent fluctuations in the value of property necessarily followed this last reduction, and the people became aware that in some way there was cheating around the board, and an outcry was raised that stopped any further attempt in that country to humbug the public by a reduction of the monetary standard.

By other countries, the experiment of bi-metalism has been tried. In this country, the Constitution having granted Congress the power to coin money and regulate its value, Hamilton and Jefferson in 1792 agreed to a plan, which became a law, by which, for debt-paying purposes, one pound of gold should be equal to fifteen and a half of silver — the supposed commercial rate. A piece to be known as a dollar,

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was to be the standard unit of value as well as a coin for circulation. This piece, if of silver, was to contain 371.25 grains; if of gold, 24.75. Each metal was to be coined upon like conditions for depositors of bullion, at the public mint, at that rating, and in the payment of a debt calling for dollars, the debtor, under the law, had his option which metal to use in the satisfaction of his obligation. The framers of this plan proclaimed their belief that in this way, gold and silver would circulate together as money — but soon after the plan went into operation it was found that holders of bullion brought to the mint for coinage into dollars only silver, as they could get more dollars for gold bullion in the market than at the mint.

The relation in value of one to fifteen and one-half in weight, if ever alike in law and in the market at the same time, did not long remain so, and silver alone furnished the circulation, being the cheaper metal, and the law remaining unchanged. But the new silver dollar, with its quarters, halves and tenths, found a rival competitor for circulation. Throughout the country, a Spanish dollar with its "real" or eighth pieces had been previously much employed in the colonies, and Congress, to keep these pieces in circulation, declared them legal tender also in the payment of debts to the amount expressed on their face. These pieces, through long use, had become light in weight, but being just as good in payment of a debt, they were kept in circulation for that purpose,

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while the new coins, plump and bright from the mint, were melted down for use or shipped abroad. None remained in circulation, and therefore in 1805, Mr. Jefferson, then President, directed the mint to cease coining silver dollar pieces. For more than thirty years these light foreign coins continued to furnish the metallic circulation of the country, all debts being payable in them. They circulated by the operations of a law under which the cheaper currency will always drive out the dearer — a law stronger and more certain in its action than any law of Congress, for it is founded upon human greed.

To improve the currency and restore gold thereto, in 1837 Congress directed the gold coins to be reduced in weight about 7-10 of a grain to a dollar. In this way, the bullion in a coined dollar of gold was made worth less in the market than the bullion in a coined dollar of silver, and the gold coins under the law mentioned being the cheaper currency, would promptly have filled the channels of circulation, but again, the worn Spanish silver pieces, being a still cheaper currency, kept them out of use.

These nuisances were tolerated until 1857, when Congress authorized the issue from the mints of fractional silver pieces, lighter even than the much-worn Spanish ones, and the redemption at the mints of the latter coins at their nominal value. Immediately the new coins came into use — not in excess, for their issue was limited to the demand for them at their face value for gold. Then the circulation of

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the country for the first time consisted of both metals circulating together, and was entirely satisfactory to all sections. The silver dollar, however, ceased to be issued for circulation, though authorized, its value being greater for bullion purposes.

In 1878 it was noticed that silver, in relation to gold, was rapidly losing its value, and the country looked to see the silver dollar come into use as the unit of account and coin of circulation, but it was discovered that, in 1873, in a revision of the mint laws, Congress had left no authority for the further coinage of this piece. Great was the outcry that this grand opportunity to flood the country with the "dollar of the daddies" had been lost. In 1878, to appease the clamor, authority was given by Congress to coin $2,000,000 worth at least, of bullion per month on government account, the profit to go into the general treasury. But this did not satisfy, and in 1890, a bill passed the House authorizing an unlimited coinage of the silver dollar, at a ratio in weight to gold of about 16 to 1 — as established by the act of 1837. The bill, as amended in the Senate, repealed the act of 1878, under which $422,000,000 had been coined, and authorized the purchase of $4,000,000 worth of bullion per month, in payment for which legal tender certificates should be issued, payable in "coin," and in this form the bill became a law July 12, 1890. This authority for the purchase of silver bullion was repealed by act approved Nov.

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1, 1893, after about 151,000,000 of certificates had been issued, and to-day no authority for the coinage of silver dollars or the issue of silver certificates exists, except for the additional issue of fractional coins as authorized by the act of 1857.

In the act of 1890, Congress declared that the parity of value between the two metals should be maintained. Ostensibly for such maintenance, the treasury has within a year issued for gold $100,000,000 of bonds in addition to a like amount issued in 1878, to provide a reserve for legal tender notes then outstanding. The question which now confronts the country is what further legislation, if any, in regard to the employment of silver for circulation is proper and necessary, gold now being the standard of value, and gold coins the only ones authorized to be issued of full legal tender quality.

There seems to be no demand in any part of the country for the further purchase of silver bullion and the coinage of dollar pieces on government account, but there is, especially in the west and southwest, a persistent demand for the coinage of silver dollars, for depositors of silver bullion at the mint free of charge, as is now done for depositors of gold bullion. No other plan is suggested; no other scheme urged. If the use of silver as currency is to be further extended, it will be upon the basis of free coinage, and also at a ratio to gold in weight of 16 to 1, as now exists.

To-day the silver necessary to coin a dollar can be

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purchased for somewhat less than one-half a dollar in gold. To give free coinage to silver means to put into unlimited circulation silver dollar pieces, the intrinsic value of which is less than one-half of the gold dollar, our present standard. As the government would no longer stand behind these pieces to give them a fictitious value, as at present, our standard of value would at once drop one-half. The pieces would still be dollars, but their purchasing power would be but one-half as great as at present. To the public the change would come in enhanced prices for grain, meats, cloth and everything, for the price of all commodities thus measured would necessarily be doubled.

When exchanges are once thus settled, perhaps no particular injury would flow out of transactions based thereon.

France has the franc piece, less than one-fifth of our dollar, as a standard, with no special inconvenience. The great objection to the proposed change to a silver basis is the wrong that would be done to holders of obligations calling for dollars and payable in the future. Such obligations are mainly bonds issued by the Nation or States, by counties or other local divisions, railroads and other corporations, and mortgages issued upon real estate — all calling for dollars at some future time.

The amount of these obligations include at least the following, expressed in even millions:

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The National debt	$1,100,000,000
Debts of the several States	229,000,000
" " counties	145,000,000
" " municipalities	724,000,000
" " school districts	37,000,000
Funded debt of railroads	5,000,000,000
Mortgages on real estate	6,000,000,000
Total	$13,235,000,000

Should the silver dollar become the standard, the total wealth of the country would, perhaps, not be affected, but there would be an actual loss to the holders of these obligations of one-half of the total amount, or $6,167,500,000, and a corresponding gain to the obligators. In other words, the free coinage of silver would, in its operation, take more than $6,000,000,000 of property — one-tenth of the entire wealth of the country — from its present owners, and transfer it, without consideration, to other parties who have no right to it, and this exclusive of a vast amount of personal obligations.

One shudders at the thought of such an iniquity, and, when understood, there must be honor enough remaining in the American people to prevent the consummation of such bare-faced robbery.

But, it is alleged by the advocates of free silver coin, in excuse for their demands, that gold has appreciated since its demonetization in 1873, reducing the price of agricultural products and other commodities, and consequently the farmer can no longer get for the products of his farm what he could in former

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years, and that all industries are injured by the low prices arising from the relative increased value of gold.

When we speak of the value of gold or silver, we mean the rate at which the metal in question can be generally exchanged for other commodities, and this rate depends, as is well known, upon the demand for, and supply of, the metal, and when it is alleged that gold has appreciated in value, it only means that a certain fixed quantity of it can be exchanged for more wheat, more cotton, more meat and more breadstuff, or more manufactured goods, than before. Whether gold has thus appreciated in reference to other commodities and to wages paid, became a very interesting question several years ago, and the Finance Committee of the Senate, in 1891, authorized a sub-committee to make an investigation of this very matter. This sub-committee consisted of Senators Aldrich, Allison, Jones of Nevada, Harris and Carlisle, and the investigation was conducted through Hon. Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labor. An elaborate report thereon was made to the Senate, approved by all the members of the sub-committee, and the correctness of the figures has never been questioned. The committee extended the inquiry back to 1840, but they accepted the year 1860 as a standard year, and made all comparisons of prices with those of that year. Among other things, they ascertained for all the principal agricultural products how much the owner could get in gold each year

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from 1840 to 1891, for a quantity which in 1860 would bring him $100 in gold. Of the principal items, barley had increased during the 51 years in relative price from 83.1 to 101.0; cotton from 83.2 to 96.0; hemp from 88 to 108; oats from 102 to 114; rye from 79.6 to 87.9; beeves from 65.8 to 92.3; hogs from 50.5 to 66.9; tobacco from 94.1 to 111.8; wheat No. 2 Spring from 43.1 to 76.6. From 1860 to 1891 a few of the food products show a decrease in value, wheat noticeably so, decreasing from 100 to 60, and corn from 100 to 81.7. But, for proper comparison, the average price of the principal commodities should be compared.

The following table shows the relative prices in gold of the nine staple agricultural products, barley, corn, cotton, hemp, oats, meats, rye, tobacco and wheat, combined, and, for comparison, the price of silver, for dates named, as prepared by the Finance Committee of the United States Senate:

YEAR.	Agricultural products.	Silver.	YEAR.	Agricultural products.	Silver.
1860	100.0	101.4	1880	102.9	85.9
1865	97.3	117.1	1885	87.9	79.9
1870	107.7	87.5	1890	93.7	78.4
1875	116.8	98.4	1891	98.4	74.1

An examination of the average prices for 1860 and 1891 shows that the average exchange value of gold had increased meanwhile less than 2 per cent during the 31 years in question. Had silver meanwhile

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furnished the standard, the variation would have been 27 per cent in 17 years. No better methods of measuring the relative values of the two metals has ever been devised, and the result shows the falsity of any allegation that gold has appreciated in value to any great extent, or that it is less stable than silver.

The invention of labor saving machines has doubtless cheapened manufactured articles to some extent within the last 50 years. A cheaper rate would therefore occur regardless of any variation in the exchange value of gold or silver for other commodities or the employment of either metal for a standard. But the report further shows that, while the farmer obtains substantially the same prices for his articles in 1891 that he did in 1860, and 10 per cent more than he did for same articles in 1840, he pays less for most things that he has to purchase. New Orleans molasses, worth 100 in 1860 was worth but 67 9-10 in 1891. Blankets, cotton warp, wool fillings, which were 100 in 1860, were worth but 82 9-10 in 1891. Carpets, ingrain, two-ply, Lowell, which were worth 100 in 1860, were worth but 78 4-10 in 1891. Print cloths, which were worth 100 in 1860, were worth but 54 7-10 in 1891. The prices of shirtings had fallen meanwhile from 100 to 71. Tickings from 100 to 70 6-10. Candles from 100 to 48. Matches from 100 to 77 1-10. Cut nails from 100 to 59 4-10. Common hand saws from 100 to 37 5-10. Chemicals are almost invariably less, quinine having gone down from 100 in 1860, to 27 3-10 in 1891.

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Furniture is much cheaper, having gone down from 100 in 1860 to about 70 in 1891. And of glassware, pitchers have gone down from 100 to 206-10; tumblers from 100 to 41 7-10. Castile soap has also gone down from 100 to 73 5-10. There has been an increase in a few articles — sugar cured ham in the period of 31 years having gone up 22 per cent; mutton, 30 per cent; Turk's Island salt, 25 per cent.

The inquiry of the committee extended to 223 articles for comparison between 1860 and 1891, and to 85 articles between 1840 and 1891. Grouping these by years, it is found that articles of food are 3 9-10 higher in 1891 than they were in 1860; that lumber and building materials are about 22 per cent higher. But there has been a falling off in the prices of cloths and clothing, fuel and lighting, and metals and implements. The average of all the groups shows that what could have been purchased for 100 in 1860 would have cost but 90 3-10 in 1840, and 92 2-10 in 1891. This shows that the leading commodities which enter into the consumption of families are 7 8-10 per cent cheaper in 1891 than in 1860. This may readily be accounted for by the introduction of labor saving machines, and there is no need of supposing that any appreciation in the exchange value of gold caused even this depreciation in prices of manufactured goods.

Notwithstanding a small decrease in the value of commodities entering into general consumption, and a still smaller decrease in the value of farm products,

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the wages of laboring men employed in the manufacture of leather, gas, wool, cotton, iron, steel, and in other occupations, have steadily increased since 1840. The committee obtained 61 complete series of wage returns, from 1840 to 1860, and 543 distinct series to cover the period from 1860 to 1891. These returns show that, taking the average relative wages in gold of all the occupations, for every $100 the laborer received in 1860, he received $80 in 1841; $147.10 in 1873; $150.70 in 1881; and $168.60 in 1891. In other words, the average wages of laboring men employed in all the occupations reported are 68 6-10 per cent higher in 1891 than in 1860. These wages, for both periods, are measured in gold, and if gold has appreciated, as alleged, there should still be added to the reported increase the amount of the appreciation to ascertain the true returns of this labor. The appreciation of gold, if any, has certainly wrought no injury to the great mass of laboring men in the country, for their wages have increased and their expenses decreased steadily for at least the thirty years in question.

But it is alleged by the advocates of free coinage of silver, that there is not gold enough in the world to furnish the needed circulation, and silver should, therefore, be also employed. This might be true were only the metal itself used for circulation. In commercial transactions to-day, however, notes and checks are principally the instruments employed in effecting changes. The New York City Clearing

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House, reports show that out of $100,000,000 exchanges passing through that institution, less than $1,000,000, or one per cent, is in coin, and the use of notes and checks is extending and increasing in every part of the civilized world.

Experience has shown that under certain restrictions, circulation notes, payable on demand, issued by a bank or nation, will circulate at par with coin greatly to the convenience and advantage of the public. A metallic reserve of one-third of the circulation is generally found sufficient to maintain the notes at par. The stock of gold in the world is more than ample for such reserve.

From recent statistics published by the Director of the Mint, it seems that, exclusive of China, India and the Islands of the Pacific, concerning whose monetary condition little is known, the total of all kinds of money in circulation amounted to $7,979,578,000, included in which there was of gold $3,582,605,000, enough to have furnished a reserve at the ratio above indicated for a circulation of $10,747,815,000, or $2,968,237,000 more than the total circulation of paper and metal combined, indicating no lack of gold to provide any reasonable reserve for a sufficient circulation.

Again, the yield of gold within the last three decades has greatly exceeded that of any previous decade, and it seems to be still increasing. The population of Europe and America, and the yield of both gold and silver in these two continents for

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the last one hundred years, can be pretty accurately determined.

The total average annual yield of both metals per 100 of population from 1800 to 1850, was as follows: For decade ending with 1800, $25.59; 1810, $22.74; 1820, $12 29; 1830, $10.62; 1840, $13.01; 1850, $22.38.

The average annual yield per 100 of population in the same countries, of gold alone, since 1850, has been as follows: For decade ending with 1860, $36.81; 1870, $29.30; 1880, $23.06; for year ending with 1893, $35.53.

It will be seen that the yield of gold per capita since 1850 has been greater than that of both metals previous to that period. Yet the business of the world was done on the basis of the two metals previous to 1850, without embarrassment and without so enlarged a use of notes and checks, and surely there can be no deficiency in gold for the purpose hereafter, as long as the present yield continues.

In some parts of the country there seems to be, also, an impression that the free coinage of silver will, in some way, bring relief to the so-called laboring classes. Precisely in what way the relief is to come is not stated. Certainly, there is nothing in the condition of these classes in countries having a free coinage of that metal to induce the introduction of a like coinage in this country.

Our sister republic, Mexico, enjoys a free silver coinage with all the blessings the scheme can afford.

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It is well known that farm laborers in that country live in mud houses upon the estates of the wealthy, in a sort of serfdom, supporting themselves upon about twenty-five cents a day, Mexican money. Skilled labor is relatively as poorly paid.

The following table published officially shows the wages received in the City of Mexico on July 1, 1890, for certain occupations, compared with like wages in United States at same time reduced to the common standard of gold:

OCCUPATIONS.	WAGES IN MEXICO. PER DAY.		WAGES IN UNITED STATES. PER DAY.	Difference in favor of the United States.
	Mexican silver dollar.	Equivalent in U. S. gold coin.	Gold coin or its equivalent.	
Blacksmiths....	2.50	1.88	2.50	.66
Carpenters.....	1.50	1.13	2.55	1.42
Quarrymen	.50	.38	1.50	1.12
Railroad contractors..	1.00	.75	3.84	3.79
Stone cutters	1.25	.94	3.50	2.56
Tinners	.875	.66	2.45	1.99
House painters.....	1.25	.98	2.28	1.34
Gas fitters	1.00	.75	1.97	1.22
Printers	2.00	1.50	2.50	1.00
Coach makers.....	2.00	1.50	2.50	1.00
Weavers.....	1.00	.75	1.30	.55
Pattern makers.....	1.25	.94	3.24	2.30
Machinists	1.75	1.31	2.44	1.73
Engine drivers	1.50	1.13	3.79	2.66
Firemen.....	1.50	1.13	2.00	.89

At the same time, the prices of nearly all commodities were higher in Mexico than in the United States, as will be seen from the table below, showing

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prices of several articles as published in the City of Mexico, reduced to a common gold standard:

COMMODITIES.	PRICES IN MEXICO.		PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES.	In favor of United States.
	Mexican dollar.	Equivalent in U. S. gold.	Gold.	
Flour, per barrel...	10.780	$8.080	$5.100	$2.980
Sugar, per pound..	.190	.140	.050	.090
Coffee, per pound..	.740	.180	.200	*.020
Beans, per pound..	.500	.380	.500	*.120
Rice, per pound...	.085	.063	.055	.008
Lard, per pound...	.18	.135	.060	.075
Ham, per pound...	.30	.225	.114	.115
Cheese, per pound.	.25	.187	.100	.087

There is nothing in these tables to indicate that the wage earner is better off in Mexico, with its free silver, than in the United States, on a gold basis; but there is everything to indicate that his condition is much less favorable; which condition is generally admitted, whatever may be its cause.

If there is need of more money in circulation, there are plenty of ways to obtain the increase without resorting to the free coinage of silver.

Since January 1, 1879, the greenback notes of the Government have circulated at par with gold, upon a reserve of about one-third metal. In this way all the people of the country have shared alike in the gain arising from issuing non-interest bearing obligations in excess of the reserve. Had the green-

* In favor of Mexico.

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backs been redeemed and retired at that time, instead of retained in circulation, an additional issue of about $250,000,000 four per cent bonds at par would have been required, the interest on which would have been $10,000,000 per annum — which interest has been saved every year to all the people of the country alike; and the saving is still going on. Meanwhile, the issue of these notes has been supplemented by that of National banks, issued by permission of the Government to 90 per cent of the face value of United States bonds, furnished as collateral therefor. If more circulation is needed, additional greenbacks may be issued upon a like reserve, or new banks can at any time be organized for that purpose, under conditions like those in existence, or, to further increase the note circulation, it may be advisable to permit the issue of notes to the face value of the security bonds. This would at once insure an increase of 11 per cent of the existing amount of the notes outstanding, and ultimately would, perhaps, tempt capital into the organization of more note issuing banks. This plan would be an entirely safe one for the note-holder, and should give additional circulation, perhaps all that will be needed, until the bonds mature or are paid off, when other plans may become imperative.

Any other scheme to increase the issue of credit paper money should receive the most careful scrutiny, lest in avoiding certain admitted defects in the present system the country be led into a quagmire

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of depreciated paper money. Every dollar of paper in circulation must be continued redeemable at sight in gold coin of present standard weight, or its equivalent, for the country is in little humor for even a partial return to the red dog and wildcat circulation of earlier days.

J. K. Upton

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The Silver Question.

By R. P. BLAND.

CHAIRMAN COINAGE COMMITTEE FIFTY-THIRD CONGRESS.

FACTS relating to the discussion of the silver question have accumulated rapidly in the past eighteen months.

The suspension of the free coinage of silver in India, June, 1893, the repeal of the Sherman Law in November of the same year, in this country, the struggle of Austria to accumulate gold preparatory to entering the list of single gold standard countries, has had the effect of depressing prices everywhere and bringing the people of all gold standard countries to the verge of bankruptcy and despair. What can be said of the gold prophets of 1893, who, clamoring for the repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman Act, declared that this law alone stood in the way of business revival and prosperity in this country? We were told that the repeal of the purchasing clause of this act would at once cause *gold* to flow to our shores, would stop all necessity for the issuing of bonds to get gold for redemption purposes.

Congress was by these arguments and promises induced to repeal the act.

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The President refused to sign the seigniorage bill for the same reasons. Yet, in a few months after the repeal of the Sherman Act, we issued fifty millions of bonds to replenish the gold reserve, and in a short time after the veto of seigniorage bill fifty millions more of bonds were issued for the purchase of gold,

The gold thus procured is taken from the Treasury almost as fast as it is paid in.

The fault of the Sherman Law, in dealing with the question of redemption of the notes issued in the purchase of the bullion, was in giving the Secretary of the Treasury the power to redeem in gold.

Had the law compelled the coinage of the bullion and the redemption of the notes in the coin struck from the bullion, there never would have been occasion for bond issues. During the time we purchased silver, and the law of February 28, 1878, which law compelled the coinage of the bullion as fast as it was purchased and compelled the redemption of the silver certificates issued on the coin in silver dollars, we were constantly increasing our gold supply. From 1878 to 1888 we imported $132,000,000 more gold than we exported.

In 1890 the Sherman Law was passed and after its passage the Treasury notes issued in the purchase of the bullion were redeemed in gold instead of silver as under the old law. From that time our export of gold greatly increased.

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The Sherman Law declared to the world that we proposed to redeem our currency in gold. This meant the single gold standard and gave the world notice that there was to be a war for gold, and hence other countries, in order to strengthen themselves, began bidding for gold.

The repeal of the purchase clause only of the Sherman Law, leaving the gold redemption part in force, was regarded as a distinct blow at silver and an evident purpose on our part to strike down silver, a warning of a still greater demand for gold. This caused an immediate scramble for gold for India, Austria and other countries. Thus it is that the single gold standard is daily driving gold up and, what is the same thing in meaning, prices down.

The day of low prices, hard times and general confiscation is upon us, and is here to stay until the people by hard necessity are made to realize that bank notes are not money; that nothing but legal tender is in the true sense money.

That gold is the sole measure of values, and this measure of all values is itself constantly increasing by the action of the nations displacing silver as the coequal of gold in measurement of values. Cut off one-half of the money of ultimate redemption and all products must shrink one-half in money value. The remedy is plain.

Restore the old bi-metallic standard that existed for eighty years in our history. This standard made the silver dollar, as now coined in pure silver, the

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unit of account or value. There is no other mode of redress. Coin the silver and gold freely at our own mints. Let gold and silver certificates take the place of other form of money. The two coins will be a basis for our currency, and the supply will be ample for all business purposes.

But we are told the two coins, gold and silver, would not circulate together.

The answer is, they now circulate side by side.

Again, it is said this is so because we have limited the coinage of silver.

It was claimed by Mr. Sherman, when he was Secretary of the Treasury, when we had coined but fifty millions of silver dollars, that this amount was all the country could absorb at a parity with gold.

Still we coined silver until we now have four hundred and twenty millions, all at a par with gold.

Why should those people who decry silver as cheap money now show a hasty determination to authorize an unlimited amount of bank paper intrinsically worth nothing?

Is it because the plan of putting the control of the volume of money in the keeping of corporate wealth is more favorable to the masses of the people than to permit the people themselves, through the laws of nature and the demands of business and trade, to supply the volume of money by the use of the government mints?

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Must a government "of *the people, by the people and for the people*" surrender its prerogative of issuing money to a monopoly?

Surely, if the demand for money will be sufficient to float an unlimited issue of bank paper at par with gold, the same demand will keep at par all the silver that will come to us.

The parity can be attended to by reducing the metal in the coin that goes to a premium or is hoarded. There need be no apprehension as to that.

Silver has been depreciated as compared to gold by the disuse of silver as standard money, and the whole strain of ultimate redemption put on gold alone. The restoration of silver will bring gold down to its proper level without any change of ratio.

The British Royal Commission of 1887, paragraphs 192-3-4 of its report, states the principal and historical fact of the Latin Union maintaining the parity of the two metals as follows:

192. These considerations seem to suggest the existence of some steadying influence in former periods, which has now been removed, and which has left the silver market subject to the free influence of causes, the full effect of which was previously kept in check.

The question therefore forces itself upon us: Is there any other circumstance calculated to affect the relation of silver to gold which distinguishes the later period from the earlier?

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Now, undoubtedly the date which forms the dividing line between an epoch of approximate fixity in the relative value of gold and silver and one of marked instability is the year when the bimetallic system which had previously been in force in the Latin Union ceased to be in full operation; and we are irresistibly led to the conclusion that the operation of that system, established as it was in countries the population and commerce of which were considerable, exerted a material influence upon the relative value of the two metals.

So long as that system was in force we think that, notwithstanding the changes in the production and use of the precious metals, it kept the market price of silver approximately steady at the ratio fixed by law between them, namely fifteen and one-half to one.

When once the conclusion is arrived at that this was the case, the circumstances on which we have dwelt as characterizing the period since 1873 appear amply sufficient to account for the fall in the price of silver, tending as they all do in that direction; and the fact that on any particular day the supply of silver and of council bills may be large while the need for remittances is small, and *vice versa*, would explain the constant fluctuations in the price of silver which have manifested themselves in recent years.

193. Nor does it appear to us *a priori* unreasonable to suppose that the existence in the Latin Union of a bimetallic system with a ratio of fifteen and one-half to one fixed between the two metals should

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have been capable of keeping the market price of silver steady at approximately that ratio.

The view that it could only affect the market price to the extent to which there was a demand for it for currency purposes in the Latin Union, or to which it was actually taken to the mints of those countries is, we think, fallacious.

The fact that the owner of silver could, in the last resort, take it to those mints and have it converted into coin, which would purchase commodities at the ratio of fifteen and one-half of silver to one of gold, would, in our opinion, be likely to affect the price of silver in the market generally, whoever the purchaser and for whatever country it was destined. It would enable the seller to stand out for a price approximating to the legal ratio, and would tend to keep the market steady at about that point.

194. It has been urged that during the earlier of the two periods, which we have been contrasting, the conditions which existed from time to time were favorable to the maintenance of the legal ratio; that the great influx of gold towards the middle of this century found France with a large stock of silver, and that this silver, owing to exceptional circumstances, had a ready outlet to India.

But we do not think this affords an adequate solution of the problem without taking into account the existence of the bimetallic system. It may be true that the circumstances referred to were conditions which helped to make the bimetallic system opera-

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tive. But, as we have observed before, circumstances and conditions of a like nature have been more or less operative both before and since 1873, and yet the effect on the relative value of the two metals has been very different.

The fact that France is practically the Latin Union is proof of the contention that this country is able to coin gold and silver free and at a parity at our present ratio.

Our wealth, commercial power, population and territory, are vastly greater than that of France, or the Latin Union, and to be within the lines of conservatism you might throw in England or Germany.

Indeed, our power for development and use of money is probably greater than all western Europe; yet we are asked to plead the "baby act," and beg other countries to assist us in restoring silver.

We are again reminded that the free coinage of the Mexican dollar in Mexico does not place silver at par with gold. The answer is, that Mexico is not a great commercial power such as this country or France.

It *was* a country or countries of considerable commercial power that the British Royal Commission unanimously agreed could maintain the relative value of the two metals at a ratio of 15½ to 1. Still should Mexico cease to coin silver and attempt to adopt the gold standard, the fall in silver or the *rise* in gold would be augmented.

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Walter Bagehot in his work, "Lombard Street," page 142, says:

"After a commercial crisis — 1866, for example — two things happen: first, we call in the debts which are owing to us in other countries; and we require these debts to be paid to us, not in commodities, but in money." Thus it is that Great Britain, a creditor nation, having ten billions of money due her in foreign counties, more than one-third of it due from us, is enabled when the pressure requires it or for any purpose of her own, can drain us of all our gold at will. She will demand money in a pinch and not commodities.

Both money and commodities have been demanded by her since the panic in Australia and the failure of Barring Brothers.

The stress of hard times in Europe has caused to a great extent the flow of our gold there. The drain will go when the pressure comes.

The effect of free coinage of silver will be to replenish our lost gold currency by the free use of silver and thus prevent the European gold standard panics and hard times from reacting on us.

Bank notes will not answer, for they are a mere credit currency and not money of *redemption.*

When gold goes this credit money must go with it. Must shrink or contract as the foundation for redemption is removed or narrowed.

R. P. Bland

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Chauncey M. Depew.

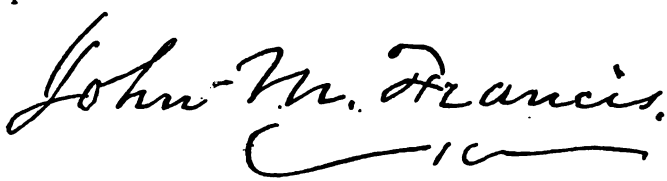
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Oration on Christopher Columbus.

By CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW, L.L. D.

PROBABLY no man in the United States is better known throughout the world than the Hon. Chauncey M. Depew, president of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company. He is not only a trained lawyer -- eminent in his profession — a wise and sagacious statesman, but an orator of world-wide fame.

The publishers have been accorded by Dr. Depew the privilege of publishing for the first time in this work the full text of his oration delivered at the unveiling of the Christopher Columbus Statue in Central Park, New York, May 12, 1894. As an historical exposition illustrative of the marvelous progress of civilization, wherein our country has been immeasurably blessed and mankind glorified, it is an eloquent and most instructive discourse. As an analysis of the great discoverer and the prodigious forces, we may almost say the divine inspirations, that controlled his motives and directed his actions, Dr. Depew's oration may be regarded as a masterpiece.



New York can add nothing to the glory of Columbus, but she may enforce the lesson of his life and discovery. The fire kindled by him on a little island of the Western Hemisphere, amid the dark-

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ness of the fifteenth century, has become the flame which illumines the nineteenth with light and liberty. Seed time and harvest have their soil and seasons with humanity as with the earth. In all ages and among all races, the winds and the waves have borne the kernels of truth, and they have been lost on the rocks and in the waters. There were patriots before Runnymede, but their blood fertilized that field for Magna Charta. Patriots had labored and died in vain before the Declaration of Independence in 1776. German Federation had been a Teutonic dream for two thousand years before Bismarck. Italian unity was the hope of Italy for centuries before Garibaldi, Mazzini and Cavour. The French Republic was the effort and aspiration of the best thinkers and boldest actors of France for a hundred years before Thiers and Gambetta. The Viking sailed along the coast of North America, and planted colonies upon its shores five hundred years before Columbus. But the time was not ripe, and the people of Europe were not prepared for America and its opportunities.

The brilliant and liberal reign of Lorenzo, the Magnificent, at Florence, which closed as Columbus sailed from Palos, had stimulated commerce, art and learning. It had both awakened and opened the mind in every country on the continent. The literary treasures of the great library of the Vatican were placed at the disposal of scholars, and the revival of learning was a marked feature of the period. The expulsion of the Moslems from Spain had relieved

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Europe of the strain of warring creeds. Intense intellectual activity was breaking the bonds of the Middle Ages, and preparing the way for independent thought and discovery. The statesmanship and the guile of Louis the Eleventh in France, and the concentration of power in Ferdinand and Isabella in Spain, had broken down feudalism and centralized authority. The road from the dismantled castles of the Barons, to the royal palace, and from the royal palace, to the representative assembly of the people, became the highway of liberty. These wonderful and revolutionary events were for a time, the blessings only of the favored few, the great and the learned.

It was reserved not for kings or nobles or the mighty of earth to utilize the past and present for the uplifting of the masses of mankind. We may say reverently, as Christianity came for us through the son of a carpenter, so the invention which opened the way for christianizing the world was wrought out by a humble artisan of Mayence. The significance of types, and the prophecy of their use, were made clear in the selection of the Bible as their first work. The printing press of Guttenberg, and the invention of paper which had preceded it only a few years, were the levers and the levelers of the future. By bringing education within the reach of all, they elevated the people to the understanding and practice of liberty; and equal opportunity and rights battered down privilege and caste.

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Incidents, which to the pious are special providences, and to others trifling accidents, have often altered the course of history. The marriage of Isabella with Ferdinand, enabled a liberal and generous mind to influence a bigoted and miserly one for the venture, certainly rash, perhaps blasphemous, into the unknown West; and made possible the voyage of Columbus. A hungry boy, stopped his proud and mendicant father at the door of the convent of La Rabida, to meet there in the person of the Prior, the enlightened, and learned Father Juan Perega, the Confessor of the Queen, the only man living who had both the breadth and independence to understand and believe in the plans of the great navigator, and also the confidence of her Majesty. It was a flight of birds which changed the course of the Santa Maria and her consorts, and gave South America to Spain and Portugal, and the dominant power on the Northern Continent to the Saxon race. Thus, the United States, as distinguished from the Spanish Republics and the Portugese Empire and subsequent Republic of Brazil, is apparently an accident of an accident. It is really the result of climate and conditions suited to the development of that resistless strain in the blood, which circles the globe with its conquests, and, blended with Teuton and Celt, with Latin and Scandinavian, increases the power and the promise of our country.

Ferdinand was a typical representative of his times. We must judge the men of every period by their

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standards, not ours. Only fools are offended at criticisms of the State or Church of the dark ages, and only the ignorant claim that either was so abreast with the thought or education of to-day that their substitution for present conditions would receive now either welcome or hospitality. The King believed the torture chamber better than Courts of Justice. He knew of no law which was superior to his autocratic will. He was frugal to meanness, and devoid of generosity or integrity. He laughed at Columbus when the great navigator was pleading for the ships to find for him an empire, and he cheated the dying hero of the rewards he promised, and the honors he had pledged, when the empire was won. To Isabella had been wafted across space a breath of the purer air of the nineteenth century. When we consider what she was, in spite of the almost insufferable barriers of her environment, a sweet and mighty spirit seems to have escaped from the bondage of the age, and, in the beautiful presence of the Queen, inspired the soul of a saint and prophetess. She gave her jewels for the fleet, and with undimmed faith waited for the return which ended in triumphal processions and royal greetings. She struck the shackles from the Indian slaves which were brought her as part of the booty of the New World, and issued stern decrees against cruelty and lust; but they were nullified by her untimely death, and myriads of innocent men, women and children were consigned to nameless horrors and final extermination.

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This favored land recognizes its obligations to its benefactress, in granting to woman privileges and opportunities unknown in other countries. It gives to her independence and control in her property. It opens for her the academy and the university, and it yields to her a precedence and power at home and in society, and puts within her grasp the substance of rights which in the boasted age of chivalry were only a flowery and pretentious sham.

Columbus was of that rare type of genius which belongs to no age, and rises above the errors, or superstitions, or ignorance of his period. While most of the learned, and all the unlearned, believed the earth to be flat, he boldly proclaimed its sphericity; while the same overwhelming majority feared the monsters of the deep, who were waiting beyond the western horizon to devour the daring and sacreligious mariners and destroy their ships, he saw on the other side of the unknown sea, limitless empire for his sovereigns, and myriads of souls for the saving offices of his Church. He had sailed to the farthest limits of the discoveries of the times. He had investigated with unprejudiced and unclouded mind the evidences cast up from the ocean of other lands and strange peoples. As sailor, privateer and pirate, he had experienced the dangers of hostile elements and armed enemies. As geographer and mapmaker, he had absorbed all the teachings of the past, and boldly placed upon his maps the new continent with its untold wealth of gold and precious

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stones, and its unequalled opportunities for the power and greatness of the throne which would grant him the facilities of his voyage. The conquest of Grenada and the expulsion of the Moors from Spain seemed to the statesmen of Europe an event of transcendant importance, but to this superb enthusiast it was a local affair which delayed the plans for the capture of a continent.

The spiritual and temporal power, the pomp and pageantry of Castile and Aragon, formed an array unequalled in the brilliancy of its King and Queen, its prelates and statesmen, its philosophers and soldiers, and in the splendor of their equipment, to receive from Boabdil the keys of his capital and the capitulation of his kingdom. The enthusiasm of the hour lifted the Spanish hosts to heavenly ecstacy, all save one. This proud pauper, the royal purple of his imagination giving dignity to his rags and majesty to his mein, looked coldly upon the splendid spectacle. To the man who waited for years, because he would accept no other terms with his fleet than the Admiralty of the Ocean, the Vice Royalty of the Indies and one-tenth the revenues of the Western Hemisphere, the martial field before him was only a skirmish on the battle line of the universe.

The faults of Columbus were the results of the civilization and conditions of his times, from which no man is great enough to wholly escape, but his faith was his own. After the lapse of four hun-

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dred years it is as impressive to us as it was potent with his contemporaries. It gave immortality to the humble Convent of La Rabida and its noble prior. It clarified the atmosphere and dispelled the darkness about Isabella, so that she could grasp the great truth. It calmed the fears and quelled the mutiny of the crew, and found its reward in the glimmering light on San Salvador, which for the sailors meant land at last, and for the Admiral, the New World, of which he had dreamed, for which he had suffered, and now, after discouragements and perils innumerable, had discovered.

In 1492, was issued the cruel edict which confiscated the property of hundreds of thousands of Jews, and then expelled them from Spain. In the same year the same sovereigns equipped the fleet of Columbus for its immortal voyage. The unhappy and unfortunate Hebrews were landed upon the shores of Asia and Africa, but nowhere did they receive either welcome or hospitality. The little ships of Columbus as they sailed out of the harbor of Palos passed the greater war vessels which were carrying these captive Israelites from their homes. The royal frigates were bearing them to fresh horrors and persecutions, but the weak and deckless caravals of the discoverer were, unknown to sovereign or servant, guided by Divine Providence to the land where all creeds and all races should dwell in the harmony of equal rights, and

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unite in contributing to the power and glory of a government of organized liberty.

The inspiring dream of Columbus was to utilize the treasures of the New World for the redemption from the infidel of the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem. He believed that by virtue of his name, Christopher, he was carrying Christ across the sea to the heathen. The lust for gold made his followers profane the name of the Prince of Peace, with such outrages and cruelties, such torturings and massacres of the confiding aborigines, as caused even the fifteenth century to shudder. He died, with his dream of the rescue of the tomb of the Saviour still a vision. He little knew, as he lay helpless amidst the ruin of his hopes, that though he had lost an empty grave, he had found a perpetual asylum for conscience. He could not foresee that while in their savage greed those with him and those who came after, gave to the Indians, not the light of truth, but consigned them to the flames, and brought to them, not the gospel of love, but fell upon them with sword and spear, yet the country he discovered would be the bulwark and hope of the Church.

The Pilgrim Fathers fled from persecution in England to religious liberty in Massachusetts. The Highlanders who fought for Prince Charles Edward Stuart, found refuge in North Carolina. The Quakers, to be free from their tormentors, sailed to Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and they received there with open arms the Germans driven from the Pala-

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tinate by Louis the Fourteenth. The Huguenots, escaping from France after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, built happy homes on the Hudson and under the shelter of the groves of South Carolina. Ogelthorpe led the Teutons, seeking an opportunity to worship God according to their lights, from Salzburg to Georgia. Irishmen, saved from the merciless conquests of Cromwell, scattered all over the land to consecrate their altars and enjoy in safety their religion. Dutch Protestants came to New York, Swedish Protestants to Delaware, English Catholics to Maryland and the English Church Cavaliers to Virginia. The best contribution of Columbus to future generations was a continent for the cultivation of civil and religious liberty. A State built upon the individual and not upon classes or creeds is the source and strength of American freedom.

It was the supreme good fortune of the United States that for its first settlers the conditions of existence were labor, temperance and thrift. The hostile savages, the rigors of the climate, the virgin forests and the resisting soil demanded the indomitable energy and dauntless courage which fashion heroes and patriots. Had there been gold mines in New England, New York and Virginia to excite the cupidity of kings and tempt the adventurers of Europe, and to demoralize the inhabitants of the colonies, and take them from their homes and their churches to the feverish excitement of mining camps, there would have been

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little permanent settlement or public sentiment. The farms on the bleak hillsides of Connecticut and Massachusetts, in the Mohawk Valley, along the Delaware and on the James, were fountains of national virtue and springs of free thought and free speech. It was the training and experience of necessity which opened the avenues of opportunity for the people of North America. It enabled the "embattled farmer" at Concord and Lexington to face the veterans of European battlefields. It nerved the members of the Continental Congress to brave the terrors of treason, and confiscation and death, by their bold and clear signatures to the Declaration of Independence. It reared and trained a race who could rescind slavery, though it was interwoven with their political system from foundation to turret, and after bloody battles between those who upheld the one side and those who favored the other, could reunite them to labor harmoniously for the welfare and strength of the purified Republic.

The Columbian idea of discovery was to find a land where gold could be mined from exhaustless stores, a land flowing with rivers of diamonds and precious stones. Limitless wealth, easily acquired, was to enrich, beyond the dreams of avarice, the sovereigns and people of Spain. He had no conception of the adventurous pioneer and thrifty emigrant. The bell-crowned Pilgrims, landing on Plymouth Rock in midwinter with no other purpose than to found a State for the enjoyment by all of just and

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equal laws, would have aroused his wonder and contempt. The imagination cannot picture his amazement could he have foreseen the marvelous results of the Mayflower's voyage. The wealth poured in such abundant measure from the mines in the New World into the treasury of Spain was a potent factor in the fall of her power and prestige in Europe.

The founders of our Republic welcomed with cordial hospitality all who came to escape from oppression or better their condition. The immigrants, who accepted the invitation and landed by millions on our shores, brought the qualities and purposes which have added incalculably to the wealth and glory of our country. While South America and Mexico were demoralizing Europe with gold and silver, Europe was contributing to the United States her farmers and artisans to gather from the fruitful earth and produce in the busy factory an annual and ever increasing volume of wealth; wealth which enriches but does not enervate, which stimulates invention, promotes progress, founds institutions of learning, builds homes for the many and increases the happiness of all. Four centuries separate us from Columbus. Within this period more has been accomplished for humanity than the four thousand years which preceded him.

We are here to erect this statue to his memory, because of the unnumbered blessings to America, and to the people of every race and clime which have followed his discovery. His genius and faith gave

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to succeeding generations the opportunity for life and liberty. We, the heirs of all the ages, in the plenitude of our enjoyments, and the prodigality of the favors showered upon us, hail Columbus — the hero and benefactor.

Chauncey M. Depew.

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Success in Life.

By HENRY W. CURTIS,

OF HOENINGHAUS & CURTISS, SILK IMPORTERS, NEW YORK CITY.

IF there is one thing more than another which fills the thought of every young man and woman in the land, it is the desire to make a success in life. No one is worthy to be called a man or woman who is not energized by such an ambition. If, then, the desire is universal, surely it will be as widely interesting to ask: What constitutes true success?

One could not help being struck with wonder as he stood and watched the almost noiseless workings of the great engine that gave life and action to every piece of mechanism in the Machinery Hall at our Columbian Exposition, or restrain the thought of what a mighty power was gathered as from the water over the fire was generated the steam that seemingly so easily set this little world in motion.

Fire was the inspiration of that life. So the fire in our hearts, which we call ambition, keeps the great human world in motion, and noiselessly it does its work with such power as to move with its impelling force the whole family on earth. How import-

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ant it is that this motive power should be right, for only as it is right can real success be reached.

That life is not a real success which finds its motive power in the thought that money-getting is the great object in life. A man may amass the wealth of a Vanderbilt or an Astor, and yet his life be a miserable failure. It is not how long is the rent-roll or how big the vault which carries our earthly treasures that attest the victory in living. Ah, no, it rather: As you have accumulated money, what has been your thought in accumulating it? Has it been that you might be the almoner of God's bounty, that you might help and relieve those about you less fortunate than yourself?

If your only motive has been to minister to your own selfish comfort and luxury in the heaping up of gold, with none to call you blessed, then your life, I say, is a miserable failure. Are you living with the one thought of how you can serve your selfish ambition and rise to places of influence simply to gratify a selfish greed of power? Surely such a life none, judging by right standards, will name as impelled by proper motives, neither can it be called in any sense successful. Understand, I do not belittle the power that money gives, or the laudable ambition in gaining it, or the influence that culture and intellectual power brings with it, but I do say it is a shame to figure from such accumulation of riches or power alone an answer of success. That life is a real success which blesses as it goes; which, while it enriches

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self, enriches others; which, while it accumulates power, lifts others with it.

Little words of sympathy, little acts of kindness, little deeds of love, little helping hands encircling others and making easier the way for them — these are the little successes which, when gathered into one great whole, give the pattern of life which God approves. Such a life alone makes men honored and loved, makes of the life a sweet garden all fragrant with the perfume of its flowers which, while they blossom for the gardener, cheer and bless those who pass his way. Like the line of the brook which, as far as the eye can reach, you can follow by the fresher green of the field through which it flows, so the influence of the really successful life is felt by all that touch it, and when it opens up into the everlasting life beyond, will still leave behind a fragrance and a fruitage which shall be a halo of blessing and an inspiration to others struggling along life's way.

Henry W Curtiss.

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Edward W. Bok

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The Country Lad in the City.

By EDWARD W. BOK,

EDITOR LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

THERE comes a time in the life of almost every country lad when he becomes ambitious and desires to go to one of the large cities and make his fortune. His energies are fired either by the young men from the city who come to his village during the summer, or, it may be, his enthusiasm is kindled by the successes of which he reads in the papers which come to the house of his parents. The routine of farm life suddenly becomes more monotonous than ever, and he craves for the activity and excitement of city life. In short: he wants to go to the city. There, he feels, lies the chance "to make something of himself."

Whether or not it is always wise for the farmer's son to give way to his feeling and leave his home, where he is at least certain of food and comfortable shelter, for the uncertainties which he must surely encounter in city life, is not for me here to consider. Sometimes I think it would be better if our young men would stay on the farm. But, on the other hand, there must be instances where it will be best

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for the young man to at least attempt the change. No writer can lay down a rule in this respect. Every case is an individual one, and the young man himself must be the one to decide.

Suppose, however, that the country lad is unmindful of the entreaties of father, mother, brother and sister, and is determined to try his luck in the city, what are his chances of success?

Country lads generally see city life through rose-colored glasses. This it is hard to make them believe, but the fact remains nevertheless. Life in a great city is not what he expects to find it. Invariably it is disappointing, and this is the first thing he must be prepared for. He has heard and read wonderful accounts of the successes that have been made, and are to be made in the city. But what we hear and read of any thing in this life is generally radically different from the actual life. Not that pens or mouths invariably falsify, but a description of any thing is apt to be colored by the point of view from which it is seen. If the country lad's going to the city is based on what he has heard or read, the keenest disappointment lies in store for him. I have known so many cases of disappointment of this sort that I write of what I know, not of what I think.

Life in our great American cities is selfish, at its very best. In business, men are for the most part cold and hard, cognizant only of their own interests. "Well," says our country lad, "so are the men in

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any neighborhood. Are not men the same the world over?" Yes, my good fellow, they are: but they are likewise different. The selfishness of the city business man is intensified in comparison to that of the farmer. It must necessarily be so, since the city man, as a rule, has larger interests, and competition is keener. A man is apt to become like his surroundings, and the natures of thousands of our city business men are like the pavements upon which they walk each day, and the walls upon which their eyes rest. Green trees and soft grass have an enormous influence upon a man, and the best evidence of this truth is found in the softer natures which our city business men show to the world when they are in the country in the summer. The country lad must never allow himself to forget the great truth that the clearest natures are always to be found where the purest water exists. "God made the country, but man made the city," is a proverb in which there is a vast amount of truth.

A country lad coming to one of our great cities to make a career must expect no leniency for his shortcomings. I speak now of experience as a rule, not of the exceptions. There have been cases, and doubtless will be, where a young man fresh from the country has come to the city and fallen into the hands of some one who resembled the Good Samaritan of Biblical lore, but such have always been the exceptions and ever will be. As a rule, life is very real in a great city, and likewise are its men very

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earthly and of the earth earthy. Good Samaritans who will bind up the wounds which the country lad receives during his first year or two in the city are not as numerous as many of us might like to believe. And the country lad must receive wounds. He comes to city life untrained and unequipped. At his best, he is at a disadvantage with the young men who have been either born in the city or trained there from their childhood. And, as a rule, men have very little patience with a young man's shortcomings in business. "My office cannot be a training school: we haven't time for that sort of thing," is a statement one often hears in business circles. With competition as keen as it is to-day in every trade and profession, the business man looks around for young men who can come equipped, and who can bring at least some knowledge to the work, and the greater the knowledge, the warmer the welcome.

"But surely there must be chances in such great cities as New York, Boston, Chicago, or Philadelphia for a young man to begin!" exclaims the country lad. There are, my dear fellow, there are, and plenty of them, if you are prepared for the experiences which they will mean to you. The great strength of our country is that there is a chance for every young man, and a place for him. But the beginning is hard, very hard indeed — a great deal harder than young fellows, as a rule, either dream of, or will believe. And particularly difficult is it to the young man to whom every phase of city life is strange.

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He must learn right from the beginning. In fact he has two studies before him: the study of city life itself and of business methods in a city, and he must study them both together. He cannot afford the time to take them singly. Moments are very precious things in city business life. It is a great game in which every point counts, and the loss of a single point may lose the game. Such moments of restful activity as enter into the life of a lad on a farm are unknown in the life of the right sort of a young man in business life. A young man making his career in the city must be constantly on the alert: every energy must be alive, and a moment wasted is an opportunity lost. That is, if he desires to make a success worth having. Indifferent successes do not call for all this. But if a young man seeks simply for a moderate living, he will do best to remain on the farm, and not venture into the city. Only misery and privation of the keenest sort awaits a young fellow of lackadaisical spirits in the city. There is but one way to make a success in business, and that way calls for the hardest kind of work, with scarcely an intermission for the first ten, fifteen or twenty years.

I am sometimes inclined to believe if I were a country lad, with a desire to go to the great city nearest my home to make a career, I would not go directly from my home to the city itself, but, as a first step, I would endeavor to get closer to the city, and study it from a nearer standpoint without at first

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plunging into its very midst. It may be said, in contradiction of this, that as the only true way of learning French is to live directly in a French family where one learns per force, so the only way to know a city is to live in its midst from the very start, and not touch it gingerly from a closer distance. At the same time, while this view may be wise for some, I am strong in my belief that a conservative course is always the best. The change from a life on the farm to the bustle of a great city represents the extremes, and these are rarely healthful for any young man. The mind at twenty or twenty-five is easily swayed, and I like to believe that mental training is a pretty good thing. Only the strongest constitutions can stand sudden changes, and what is true of us physically is apt to be true of us mentally and morally. A number of successful careers demonstrate the utility of my plan. Many a young country lad has gone closer to city life, and yet has not become directly of it. There he has set up his tents and there he is to-day, never having ventured into the great business life of the city, save to make commercial connections and solidify himself to the heart of commerce. It is a mistaken idea that a success can only be made in the great cities. Very often can a man throw a greater light upon the metropolis at a little distance from it than if he were right in the midst of it. Great cities swallow up some mighty clever people. The man who keeps a little away from the great caldron that boils in the heart of every city often makes just as

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great a success as the man in the midst of it, and he wears himself out less in the attempt.

When a young man who all his life has lived in the country goes to the city in search of success, he must bear in mind that his life will vary only in the minor details, but not in its general principles. It is a common belief that men are morally worse in the city than they are in the country. This is absolute nonsense. Men themselves are not one iota worse or better in the city than in the country. A man of vicious tendencies will be as vicious in one place as he will in another. A greater number of temptations exist in the city, naturally. These he can accept or reject, just as he sees fit. It depends on the man absolutely. If a young man comes to the city strong in his principles of right and wrong, he has nothing to fear from city life, and a young man cannot afford to swerve from them any more in one place than he can in the other. To say that life is more loose in some respects in the city than it is in the country, is to state an untruth that cannot be verified in one single instance. It cannot be so. If anything, it is far more necessary for a man to lead an upright life in the city than in the country, since the mental strain is greater, and he has more need of his physical resources.

To tell a young man going from his country home to the city that he must leave behind him his old-fashioned notions of religion, is to rob him of the very armor which he will need more than any other

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element in his life. Religion, and all that it implies, goes for just as much, and counts just the same in the city as it does in the country. The business life of our cities is created, built, sustained and will always be conducted on lines of the strictest honesty. Integrity is the current coin which passes for its fullest value in metropolitan commercial circles.

A country lad coming to town with the determination to make an honest success need leave nothing behind him. In fact, the closer he adheres to the principles taught him by his mother, the surer are his chances of success. If he was taught by his mother that profanity is never indulged in by gentlemen, he will find the verification of that lesson in the city. If he leaves his mother's home with the idea impressed upon his mind that the use of strong drink is one of the greatest curses to mankind and always stands in the way of a young man's success, he will be convinced of it in the city where he will very shortly learn that the most successful business men never touch a drop of alcohol in any shape or form. He will soon find out for himself the one truth to which there is no exception — that a clear mind and an absolute avoidance of intoxicants go hand in hand, and that the one cannot be separated from the other. If his mind has been trained to believe in the existence of a God who rules the destiny of every being in the universe, and to whom the perplexed spirit can always go in prayer and find light in moments of the darkest doubt and anguish, he will have no occasion to de-

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part from that belief. On the contrary, as he meets with the disappointments and trials which must unquestionably come to him, the belief of his boyhood will become a living fact in his manhood. Let him depart from his country home with a high ideal of the best and truest womanhood as reflected in his mother and sisters, and he will find that the highest ideal is none too high for him to sustain if he wishes to win respect.

The great principles of life do not vary one particle in the city from those of the country. Some people simply imagine they do. There is but one sound basis to a man's life, wherever his lines may be cast, and that is the basis of thorough respectability. Upon that basis he can build the surest success; without it he is as helpless as a ship at sea without a compass. There are no half-way measures of success. The same principles of honesty that exist in the country store, rule in the city counting house. A young man cannot depart one inch in his personal life with any greater degree of safety among the pavements of the city than he can among the fields of his country home. The standard of morality is not one particle lower, and it is pure nonsense to imagine that it is so. How could it be with any safety to the great commercial interests that thrive in our cities? Much that we hear and read of the dark side of city life, is the work of imaginative writers. I have again and again read books, and seen plays, in which life in New York was portrayed in a manner that simply

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made me marvel at the ingenuity of the man who could build so much out of so little. There is another than the vicious side of city life, but because it is less attractive in its details to the mass of the people, we do not hear or read so much about it. No young man with a firm idea fixed in his mind, need hesitate to come to the city because of its morality or immorality. He has nothing to do with that—at least, he *need* have nothing to do with it. If he finds immorality, it will be only because he seeks it. Let him avoid it and it will never enter into his life. Vice is not thrust upon us half as much as we like people to believe that it is. It may come where it is uninvited, but it never stays unless encouraged.

To the lad on a farm with an ambition to go to the city and make a success, let me say:

If you feel something within you that compels the belief that you were destined to move among men and be a larger part of the great commercial interests of the nation than you can possibly be on the farm, then go to the city. But be sure, first, that you are not impelled to seek a change because of a simple dissatisfaction with your surroundings. That means nothing except a negative quality that will have no place in a larger success elsewhere.

Be convinced that you have determination that lacks development purely because of the limited opportunities a life on the farm necessarily offers. In other words: Have an aim, a purpose which is practicable, and capable of being carried out. Make

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sure, too, that the purpose is not beyond your capabilities. Every one of us have our limitations, and it is wise first to know something of our powers of swimming before we plunge beyond our depth. Realize fully that the place has something to do with our success, but we ourselves are, after all, the most important part of a success. To thousands of young men all places are alike in that they would be a failure in one place as well as in another.

A young man's decision, so far as a change in his life is concerned, must be made by himself alone, and is only capable of being so made. All the advice in the world amounts to very little. It is a true saying that a person only seeks advice after he has made up his mind. Likewise is the proverb very true that every man is the architect of his own fortune. I do not counsel headstrongness in a young man, or an insensibility to good advice. But I do say and believe that every young man must decide his own career for himself. He should not make such a decision until he is old enough to know what he is about. But then he should decide by himself and for himself alone. He can seek counsel, but the decision itself must be of his own.

Having satisfied himself that his path in life lies in the direction of the city rather than on the farm, let him, before he starts, bear in mind these few points:

That he will find the city radically different from what he has read and heard of it. For this, his first disappointment, he must be prepared. Should the

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real prove beyond the ideal, so much the better and pleasanter. But it is not likely to be.

That he has years of the hardest and most trying work before him; not one, two or five years, but double and triple any of these number of years. If he has read or heard of what are called "quick successes," he will very quickly find out that such successes are made nowadays only on paper: never in reality. Behind every instance of a lasting success lie years and years of the hardest kind of work.

He must bear in mind also that there is no short road to success. He cannot "cut across lots." There is but one road to a successful life, and that is the road paved by patience, hard work and honesty. Nothing is to be had for the asking in the business world of the great cities; everything must be acquired. Nor can the majority of things, particularly those most valuable to us, be bought. They must be experienced. And a great deal of pain and hardships go with most experiences.

For a concise set of rules let me give the country young man that which I published elsewhere not long since, and met with acceptance:

Be sure you get into a business you like.

Devote yourself to it.

Be honest in everything; don't blink at honesty — look it straight in the face.

Be thorough. Do everything as if it were the only thing you were ever going to do, and your life reputation must be made upon the result.

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Employ caution; think out a thing before you enter upon it.

Sleep eight hours every night; do this despite everything; rather lose a chance than lose an hour of sleep.

Do everything that means keeping in good health.

Avoid liquors of all kinds.

Be deferential to women always, never forgetting that your mother is a woman.

Smoke moderately, or not at all: the last is best.

Shun discussions on two points — religion and politics.

Cultivate the society of good women; a good woman is always a man's best friend: first and last choose the truest among them, marry her, and have your own home.

And whatever else you may forget of your early days, remember that there are obligations which bind your thoughts and affections to those from whom you sprang. Success will never come to a son who either forgets his parents, or looks askance at them, because in a measure he has outgrown their ways, he being of the city, and they of the country. Closely knitted into every success, is the only commandment of all the ten to which is attached a promise:

"Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long upon the land."

Edward W. Bok

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Economy.

By JOHN M. FRANCIS,
Ex-United States Minister to Austria.

THE meaning of the word needs little exposition. Every mind of average intelligence understands it in a general sense. Its application and enforcement in the details of affairs constitute the practical executive force which demands our attention. What is economy? Originally its meaning seems to have been limited to household matters, as one authority defines it — "House-management, house-ruling, house-keeping." This is as it came from the patriarchal age. But it has largely broadened with our ideas of civil relationships, so that we have economy included as a factor in business concerns and governmental management as well as in domestic policies. The definition of one writer seems to be a very clear presentation of the meaning of economy, namely: "The management, regulation or supervision of means or resources; especially the management of pecuniary or other concerns of a household; hence a frugal and judicious use of money, material and time — the avoidance of, or freedom from, waste or extravagance in the management or use of any-

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John M. Francis.

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thing; frugality in the expenditure of money and material." So it would seem, after all, the meaning is crystallized in this one idea of the proper management of one's concerns. Illustrative examples we have in plenty pointing out sad failures from the lack of it; conspicuous success and largest usefulness from its intelligent exercise. In the care of important matters, public and private, the largest safety is to be assured by reposing confidence in those who have faithfully and habitually enforced for themselves the policy of wise economy. Of course there must be the basis of personal integrity. But such economy builds upon that basis. Observe the examples of Washington and Jefferson. Reading their papers it will be seen with what scrupulous care they administered their households. Washington even in camp, with the cares of the campaign devolved upon him, looked after the details of his mess and his personal expenditures. And so this habit, this policy of economy, had expression in his careful account of household expenditures while he was President. Jefferson planned his house, his garden, his farm, everything to the last detail. All this to avoid waste, to enforce reasonable frugality. It was, too, a healthy exercise of mind as well as a beneficent example. Such men are to be trusted. They were the highest types of the class of men in whom others put confidence. One has put the case in a sentence — "Never trust a man to save for you who does not save for himself."

All this leads up to the thought of the past in

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respect of economy, and should be suggestive of duties for the future. We know that the sturdy men and women of the early days in our own country were workers, honest, frugal and saving. They wrestled with nature—rugged nature, too, as in New England—and acquired for themselves comfortable homes, the nurseries of virtues that permeated the growing settlements and augmenting populations, all brought up, so to speak, to work, to save, to assure increase from the enforcement of wholesome economy. So manly courage was inspired, strength of character developed, and the best fruits of Christian civilization were ripened for the blessed harvesting. It is within the recollection of many still surviving that they were brought up under the discipline of economy; work was appointed for them, and work they had to do as strength and ability permitted; idleness, that generating power of evil, was not tolerated.

The times of prosperity, often more apparent than real, came as the results of industrial reaction and multiplied labor-saving inventions after the successful war to maintain the Union. A condition of unrest, largely among the rural populations, manifested itself. There was discontent, especially among the younger people of the country, with the old-fashioned conditions of economy and labor for a living. There was the desire to change the old order of things. Many who were living comfortably and adding a little to their material possessions by industry and frugality, were persuaded to branch out into larger

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expenditures, run into debt for household purchases, and to secure some of the luxuries of a more costly living than they had hitherto known, luxuries that the wealthy were enjoying. This was the craze, and it brought with it debt. Industry was slackened; in the spirit of discontent young men from the country flocked into the cities searching for situations to afford them an easier living with hope of quick accumulations. Comparatively few could obtain the desired places; there was congestion from the crowd of applicants. Many wisely returned to resume the wholesome work at the old home; others moved on to other fields; some were successful; not a few lamentably failed. The inspirations of the hegira were generated by abnormal discontent. The influence was detrimental.

The fact so tersely enunciated by the lamented Lincoln embraces a lesson far-reaching and important — "You can't get something for nothing." Labor must earn; economy must rule; frugality must save. It should be impressed upon the minds of the young and be heeded as a truthful maxim by all, that "money represents toil." Labor is the producing power. The capacity for successful trade and the genius for speculation that achieves great wealth and securely holds it, are vouchsafed to very few. And with these oftentimes come evils innumerable and sadly demoralizing as the result of sudden riches. Persistent industry; home life with blessed content; moderate material gains honestly acquired; economy rigidly

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enforced and frugality with systematized methods carefully observed in the details of saving, to prevent waste and guard against prodigality,— these constitute essential agencies for the most useful and successful living, and the forces that foster and protect the virtues which yield domestic, social and public happiness.

We have fallen in some respects upon evil times. To apply the corrective we must return to first principles. Earnest, honest work is essential, not necessarily by the old and discarded methods, but work with improved appliances when available, to bring out the best results. Work there should be in every household, and by every capable member thereof — no shirking, no idling away of time, but persistent and useful work. Only misery can come from the evasion or attempted evasion of the divine fiat to work. The good old policy of economy must be restored to make work tell in the achievement of desirable success, with happy homes, and the crowning glory of highest manhood and womanhood. False pride pampered by the curse of debt, a pride to make purchases beyond one's means, with a view of matching or surpassing in household equipment or other glamor of showy presentation those of larger and abundant means to follow the leadership of fashion — this false pride needs to be greatly curbed or wholly extirpated. A laudable pride is commendable — doing the best possible with means at command to gratify it. But false pride ruins with debt ; it per-

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verts wholesome taste to excesses that are pernicious, and invites perils fraught with demoralization. Saving comes of frugality — saving here and there and of small things which go to make up the larger; and so the habit becomes a second nature which should be inculcated as among the most valued and useful of life's disciplinary duties. A policy of parsimony, of that selfishness that works out meanness, is to be avoided. Proper economy is wisdom; meanness is despicable.

So much is given in this short paper in a general way, rather as a brief for suggestion than an essay to dispense specific instructions. As pertaining to the theme, however, some points may be properly given to young men in whom great trusts are to be reposed with vast duties and responsibilities devolving upon them. Following may be presented as such hints, few in number, homely, but brief:

1. Get the best education opportunity may offer and diligent study secure. Conquer the rudiments; learn to spell well, to write intelligently; learn grammar, the rules and logic of your language; study geography with patient care, and arithmetic for business equipment.

2. Learn early to practice rigid economy; waste not at all; keep your accounts with careful accuracy. Shun bad company; work to become self-sustaining and independent.

3. Take a proper and cool-minded interest in pub-

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lic affairs. Read good books and read to learn and remember.

4. Make up your mind that life is a struggle, and success rewards those who are real workers. This as a stimulant for work.

5. Learn as you may from the experience of others; do not feel obliged to learn every thing from your own. In other words, listen to the advice of the wise and the good, so their opinions and instructions may prove to you a power of help in time of need.

6. Never be impatient or fickle-minded. Work for a purpose; press forward — *never get discouraged.* Be prudent; avoid debt except as necessity requires temporary credit. And be prepared at all hazards to meet its obligations as promised. And now, as the first and last rule, form the habit, make it a law of life always to be polite and just, and in business employment and activities strictly regardful of Economy.



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Alfred C. Barnes

SINCERITY.

BY ALFRED C. BARNES,

PRESIDENT OF ASTOR PLACE NATIONAL BANK, NEW YORK CITY; VICE-PRESIDENT OF AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY.

IF I have learned to value one quality more than another in business life it is sincerity. Always be what you appear to be, and always appear to be what you really are, even if your real self falls short of some romantic ideal you may have formed. When you have once won the confidence of those with whom you are thrown in contact, defects of manner, circumstances, and even defects of character which do not impair essential *truthfulness* will be overlooked. Friends and patrons will gather and stick fast to you. Others will rejoice to aid you, because it is certain that kindness will not be misapplied or abused, and that you will endeavor to return to all the equivalent of what you accept. Herein is involved a principle that underlies all the laws of healthful human intercourse. It is insincere to "take an advantage," either openly or secretly. An honest, true, pure, sincere man will not rest under the burden of an obligation such as would arise from an inequitable transaction with a neighbor. Show that you want nothing but

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that is your own, an honest equivalent for honest service, and not only good morals but good policy will be subserved thereby. Tricky transactions may seem to afford present gain, but ruined reputation or a seared conscience is dearly bought at such a price. Dishonest possessions are morally mortgaged, and heavy is the interest exacted by the satanic capitalist who holds all such obligations.



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Waldo F. Brown

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The Home on the Farm.

By WALDO F. BROWN.

IT is related of Matthew Arnold, the great English poet and author, that when visiting America nothing impressed him so favorably as the farm homes of this country, but he was greatly surprised to find no laborers' cottages on the farms, and inquired, "Where do the men live who cultivate these lands?" and his surprise was great when he learned that the owners of the farms were their own tenants, and in not a few cases performed most of the labor. Probably no other country in the world can show so many elegant farm homes as ours, and in no other country does so large a proportion of the leading men of the country come from the farm. It has been a matter of investigation by men as prominent as Washington Gladden, and others, and it has been found that usually of the 100 leading men in a moderate sized city, from sixty to seventy-five of them were farm boys. In my own county seat, a city of 20,000, twenty-three out of thirty-two lawyers were farmers' sons, and the last three presidents of Miami University, the *alma mater* of Ex-President

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Harrison, Whitelaw Reid and Senator Brice were farmer boys. The fact is established beyond question that it is in our farm homes that the men of strong bodies and determined will, of healthy character and high purpose, are reared; who go out into the world equipped to fight its battles, and, while winning in the race a high position for themselves, help to elevate society and leave the world better than they found it.

Looking for the reasons for the success of farmers' sons and daughters, we find that the farm furnishes employment suited to the child and interesting, also, so that it acquires almost unconsciously habits of industry. He is also brought in contact with nature continually, and led to investigate the secrets of growth in plants and animals. The farmer boy's evenings are usually spent at home, and are more likely to be devoted to reading than those of the city boy, where the temptation is great to spend his time on the street or in the stores. Undoubtedly the best product of the farm is the manhood and womanhood it develops in our sons and daughters, but as most plants grow best with congenial surroundings and cultivation, so to give our children the best chance we should make our homes attractive within and without. If any one raises the objection that farm profits are not large enough so that the farmer can afford this, I reply that the difference in cost between an attractive and an unattractive home is small. In the house a few good pictures on the

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walls (and the art of to-day produces them marvellously cheap), a moderate amount of money spent in good books and papers, and grass and trees without, may make all the difference between a home that educates in the right direction, and the remembrance of which will be a joy to the child in after life, and one that repels, and from which the child will escape as soon as possible. The more attractive we make the farm home, and the more intelligent we make our children, the happier their lives on the farm will be, and when they leave the farm the better equipped they will be for a happy, useful life.

The question of literature in the home is one of too much importance to pass over lightly. I presume that my own experience is that of many others, in that my opportunities for a school education were limited, as my father emigrated to Indiana in 1838, when I was a small boy, and our schools were not only indifferent, but only continued five or six months of the year, and at twenty years old I had only attended the common school, and but three months a year for the last six years; but my parents spoke good English and furnished good books and papers, and for more than fifty-five years past, I have read the *Youths' Companion*, and I believe that this was the best part of my education. We live in an age of good and marvellously cheap literature, and the wise parent will furnish his children with wholesome books and papers, and they will soon form a taste for that which is good, and there will be no danger of their reading such as

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are demoralizing. An encyclopedia, if the children are taught to use it, is a wonderful help to intelligence, and it is now within reach of every one. Ten dollars a year invested in papers will be worth more than four times that amount spent in sending children to school, if the home influences are such as to help, and the child is taught to read intelligently, by which I mean that they read understandingly, going to the dictionary and encyclopedia for what they do not understand. Taught in this way at home, they will get double benefit from attending school. If, with these helps we have added a helpful, kindly spirit in the family, the parents seeking to govern the children in a way that will teach them self-government, and gain their confidence, then we may reasonably expect the farm homes of our land to send out strong, earnest men and women, well equipped for the battle of life. One other book found in every home should not be neglected. The Bible, the "Best of Classics," should be read daily, and studied, for no book will give more mental and spiritual stimulus, or teach purer morals, and aside from the question of religion, and viewed only from the educational standpoint, familiarity with this "Book of Books," pays.

The furnishing of the home should always be within the means. Especially make the living-room bright and cheerful. Avoid steps up and down in the kitchen. If possible, have fuel and water on the same level as the kitchen and dining-room, as stepping up and down when carrying burdens has broken

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down the health of many a mother. See to it that cupboards and closets are convenient to where their contents will be used, for one step saved in passing from cupboard to table means ten thousand in a few years. Often the cutting of a door will save the wife a hundred steps a day, and we owe it to her to make her work as easy as possible.

Around the House.

The difference in cost between attractive home surroundings and those which repel is very small, while the influence on our children and the added happiness to ourselves is large. A want of order in the arrangement and location of out-buildings, neglect of little things, such as allowing old lumber and ash piles to accumulate, broken branches of trees to remain where they fell for months or years, weeds and sprouts to grow undisturbed, and grass to remain uncut during the summer, rickety fences in various stages of dilapidation, and stock pastured in the door-yard, or the fowls allowed to live about the door, all or any of these help to make an untidy, unattractive home. Attention to a few points which I will name will give an air of neatness and comfort to the surroundings of the farm home. First, a good lawn, and to have this in perfection the grading must be right, and in starting new, this is easy. The foundation of the house should be raised high enough so that there can be a gentle slope from the house to a selected point, the distance of which from the house must be

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determined by the size of the grounds and the slope of the land. The grading should be done in the summer or early autumn, and if there are places where there must be considerable fill, it will be necessary to let it settle and refill so as to keep the grade level. If there are spots where all the surface soil is removed, they should be covered with an inch or two of good soil and dressed with fine manure or superphosphate. The best time to seed a lawn is the last half of September, and I would use only timothy and blue grass seed, the first for immediate effect, and the last for permanancy. Use a quart of timothy seed to each ten square rods, and six quarts of clean blue grass seed. Protect it the first winter with a light covering of stable manure applied after the land freezes, and rake this off in the spring, and begin using the lawn mower as soon as the grass can be cut with it. An excellent lawn mower can be had now for about $5.00, and it is indispensable if one would have a perfect lawn. If the house is already built and trees growing, the grading will be more difficult, but if there are inequalities which make it difficult to use a lawn mower, earth can be drawn onto the sod and spread to level it and be re-seeded so as to improve the lawn greatly.

Trees Around the Home.

No other one thing can be made to add so much to the beauty and comfort of a country home as trees, if wisely selected and planted. I would never

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plant fruit trees in the door yard, first, because we want to plant for permanancy, and all of our fruit trees are more subject to disease and accident than forest trees, and they are more likely to be infested with insects, and the dropping fruit attracts flies and is a temptation to the children to eat when immature and unwholesome. These should be confined to the orchard, which may be near the house, but the door-yard should not be the orchard. The arrangement and number of the trees must depend on the size and shape of the grounds. The first rule that I would lay down is, that no forest tree should be set to remain permanently nearer than thirty feet from the house. If the house is without shade, I would plant quick-growing trees, such as white maples, near it, to be removed when the more permanent trees planted at a greater distance will afford shade. Second, I would not plant in rows at regular distances apart unless along the highway in front of the house, but would rather plant in groups or scattered singly in imitation of nature, and always with openings so that the sun can shine upon all parts of the house, if possible, at some time of the day. One large elm or a group of maples directly south of the house will break the noonday sun and temper the heat, and will, at the same time, allow the sun's rays to strike the house both morning and afternoon. If the land can be spared, it gives a pretty effect to plant a quarter or half acre to the south and south-west of the house in a miniature

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forest, and when this is done, plant quite a variety of trees. I have such a plot containing hard and soft maple, ash, elm, box alder, walnut, catalpa, dogwood, persimmon and crab apple. Whether you plant many or few, be sure that the hard maple has a place on account of its beautiful autumn foliage. If I was confined to three varieties, I would plant the hard or sugar maples, elm and ash, as they are all graceful in growth, tough in fibre, and permanent. Avoid evergreens except for a background, or for wind breaks to the west or north. It is difficult to get grass to grow under them, and those which bear cones give trouble, as they drop at all seasons of the year and are unsightly and in the way of using the lawn mower. I speak from long experience, for I set ten evergreens in my door yard thirty years ago, but with my present experience I would not set evergreens nearer than 100 feet, and always in the direction of the prevailing winds. If I was starting again on a farm as a young man, I would set a full acre of sugar maples near either the house or the barn, starting with 1,300 to the acre, setting them four by eight feet. I should expect to sell enough shade trees from the acre to give me a good profit, and would reduce the number to about 250 or 300 of the best to stand permanently. All young trees when set out should be cultivated for a few years until they get a thrifty start, but in the door yard mulching may be substituted for cultivation, but the maples being set in rows could be cultivated by horse power. I would

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plant seedlings one year old, one or two feet high. In many places young seedlings could be found in the woods, or they could be easily grown in a nursery. In my judgment an acre of trees of this kind would be worth $500, when large enough to be tapped, and with the modern patent spiles which require only a three-eighths inch bit, the trees can be tapped when six inches in diameter, as the holes will heal over in a single summer.

Shrubs and Flowers

Must have some place around the farm home, but the first should be planted to only a limited extent and well cared for, or they mar rather than help the appearance of the grounds. When set here and there over the yard they spoil the lawn and are usually neglected and allowed to sprout and multiply until the result is a thicket of sprouts and weeds. It is better to confine them to groups at the background or border of the lawn, and only plant such as you are sure you can take care of. A lilac, snowball, japonica and holly will form a pretty group, and a hedge of roses of various kinds in a border, neatly cultivated and trimmed so as to keep them within bounds, will be sufficient. A few beds of showy annual flowers of easy cultivation to beautify the grounds and furnish flowers to cut for the table will be found advantageous. If I was limited to a single flower it would be the nasturtium. The foliage is beautiful, the flowers brilliant and of great vatiety of

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color, and they bloom from June until autumn. For a showy bedding plant, nothing excels the petunia. They will bloom for fully five months, and the blotched and striped varieties are very beautiful. Verbenas, phlox, pansies, asters and daisies are all satisfactory, and a few of the old-fashioned four-o'clocks should be grown for the children. A row of sweet peas will give an abundance of fragrant flowers for about two months if the blossoms are kept closely cut and not allowed to form seed. They should be planted as early as the land can be worked. If confined to three varieties of flowers that could be grown with the least trouble and give the most satisfaction, I would name the nasturtium, petunia and sweet pea, and with these the table need not be without flowers from June 1st to November.

Walks and Drives.

Perhaps in no other one thing is there so great lack around the farm home as in good walks to the out-buildings and street, and the drive by which the house and barn is reached, yet nothing adds so much to the appearance and comfort as these. Without walks the mud is carried into the house on the shoes every time any one steps out of doors in muddy weather, making the home untidy and causing much unnecessary labor to the housekeeper and wear to the carpets. The drives should be located where they will be most convenient and the road-bed be well rounded up to give surface drainage and the

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edges kept cut and free from weeds and, if possible, the road-bed should be covered with gravel or broken stone. Such a drive, kept clear of straw and trash, will help rather than mar the appearance of the yard. I prefer concrete or boards to gravel for the walks near the house. I prefer the concrete for the front walk, but it will cost from eight to twelve cents a square foot, while a good plank walk can be made for three or four cents a square foot. The concrete, however, will last indefinitely, while a board walk must be renewed perhaps once in about ten years. To make a concrete walk, Portland cement must be used, as the cheap grades of cement will not endure the frost. An excavation should be made fifteen inches deep and filled to within four inches of the top with broken stone or coarse gravel and tamped solid. If the land is wet and spongy, a line of two-inch tile should be laid to drain the walk. Strips two by four inches should be staked solidly at the sides to keep the walk straight, and the grade should be established. The concrete for the foundation is prepared by mixing six parts of coarse gravel, or four parts of finely broken stone and two parts of sharp coarse sand with one part of the cement. This should be thoroughly mixed dry. It is recommended that it be shoveled over four times, but it can be more thoroughly and easily mixed if one man uses a shovel and the other a steel rake and as each shovelfull is thrown up the rake is used to spread and mix it. It should be turned twice dry and the third time it

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is shoveled or raked a man or boy should sprinkle it from a water-pot. It should not be made dripping wet, but should be dampened so that when pressed in the hand it will retain its shape and show the marks of the fingers. This should now be tamped solid to within three-fourths of an inch of the top of your walk and it should then be finished with cement made with two parts of sharp clean sand to one of cement. Mix thoroughly dry and wet and fill to the top of the strips and level with a straight-edge, and float and trowel until the surface is smooth. A barrel of cement will make about fifty square feet of walk, and for house walks three feet is wide enough, so that a barrel will lay just about one rod in length of walk. It is best to only lay a section of eight or ten feet at a time. The only trouble will be to finish the edges right, and this is done by pressing the blade of the trowel down three or four inches and crowding the cement back from the edge strips for about an inch at the top, but running down to a point below and fill this with pure dry cement. This will draw moisture from the cement and harden so as to give a smooth, hard edge, but as soon as it sets, which will be soon, remove the edge strips and with a small trowel smooth and shape the edges. If unaccustomed to using a trowel, it will be well to get a mason to help you. When the walk is completed lay strips along the edges an inch or two higher than the walk and cover it to protect it from the sun. This covering may be of boards or tarpaulin or other cloth, and

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twice a day wet the walk thoroughly for a week, or until it has thoroughly hardened. It is best to divide the walk into sections four or five feet long. This is done before it hardens by laying a straight-edge across, and with a trowel cutting down through the cement and concrete to the dry gravel. The advantage of this is that if there should be a defect in any place in your walk a section can be removed and the walk repaired with little trouble. The cost of this walk will depend somewhat on the convenience of material sand, and gravel. The cement will cost from $3 to $4.50 per barrel. This makes the best possible platform for a well, and is cheap and excellent for a floor to a dairy-house, carriage-house, poultry-house or hog-house, and for all these three inches of concrete and one-half inch of topping will be sufficient so that the cost will not be much greater than for a board floor, as a barrel of cement will lay about 100 square feet. Until within a few years all of our Portland cement was imported, but now it is made of the best quality in some parts of the United States, and is sold at lower prices than the imported article. The Buckeye Portland Cement Company of Bellefontaine, Ohio, makes a first-class article, as I know from having used it in flooring my stables. Board walks made two feet wide will give good satisfaction at the rear of the house to the barn and other out-buildings. It will pay to make them of a good, durable kind of lumber, and if properly constructed they will last for a long time. Place supports on a

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flat stone so as to raise them clear of the ground, and nail strips of board across them. The strips should be two inches square, but two by four inches may be used and should be laid only sixteen inches apart, as this will give a stiffer walk with less spring to it than if laid wider, and as the strips of board two feet long will only project two inches on a side, it will be no disadvantage. The boards should be narrow, not wider than six inches and I prefer three or four, as wide boards are likely to cup and hold water and to remain wet on the under side and rot. Lay the boards with cracks an inch wide between them, as this will give a circulation of air under them which will dry out the walk and make it last longer, and the walk will also be cleaner, as the gravel and earth which drops from the shoes will be pushed through the cracks. Besides there is a saving of lumber, as with three-inch stuff there will be a gain of an inch for each strip. A walk of this kind made wider of dressed lumber and kept painted will answer for the front of the house.

Fences and Out-Buildings.

It is absolutely necessary that there be out-buildings on the farm and they should be so constructed, arranged and located as not to mar the harmony of the surroundings. I often pass a farm on which an elegant new house has been erected, but which is surrounded with from six to twelve dilapidated out-buildings dumped down without any order, some of

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them past use, with roof falling in, and, to make matters worse, they are surrounded with ill-shaped lots enclosed by crooked fences in various stages of decay, rendering the home surroundings unsightly and almost repulsive, when a little attention to construction and arrangement would make all harmonious. To this end I advise, first, that old, disused buildings be torn down, that new buildings needed be built of dressed timber and painted, that all buildings be set in range, not fronting any way and every way, that all be placed on a solid foundation so as to remain perpendicular and not lean toward every point of the compass, and that so far as possible the out-buildings should be back of the house and at some distance from it. The coal and wood house should be convenient to the house and, if possible, with the floor on the same level as the kitchen and dining-room. The privy should be at the rear, if a separate building, and surrounded by an evergreen hedge or trellised vines to give privacy, and under no conditions would I tolerate a vault under it, for it is certain to become offensive, and there is great danger that in time it will pollute the drinking water. Make it a dry earth closet by placing under it galvanized iron receptacles, in which dry earth shall be used daily to deoderize and which can be easily carried out and emptied weekly. With this arrangement the privy as a separate building can be abolished and a corner of the wood-house partitioned off for this purpose. The room should be

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well lighted and ventilated and kept in good order. Build pigeries and poultry houses in the same general style of architecture, with a good projection at roof and gables, and paint in the same shades of color. I shall speak of barns later. Fences are only a necessary evil and always mar the appearance of the grounds, and as far as possible should be dispensed with, and what fences are required near the house I would have as inconspicuous as possible. There are forms of woven wire fence which are durable and that will turn all kinds of stock, and these can be used and a grapevine trellis placed between them and the house so that they will be almost entirely hidden. I prefer to enclose a poultry yard rather than to "pale" in the garden, for I want no border of weeds around the edges of the garden and wish to cultivate it as far as possible with horse power.

The Vegetable Garden

can be made the most attractive spot on the farm, and by far the most profitable, as under wise management a fourth acre of land will produce what will cost in the market more than $100 a year, and give a succession of choice, fresh vegetables from April to November, and the cellar stocked for winter. If the family is large, I would advise that a half acre be prepared for a garden spot, rather than less. Locate the home garden as convenient as possible to the house. This will save many steps, as for five months

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of the year something will be used from the garden every day, and the work can be done at odd moments without the loss of time necessary if one must go a long distance to the garden. Besides, a neat, well-kept garden is pleasant for the wife to look upon as she works in her kitchen. My garden comes to within twenty feet of the kitchen door, and I would not be willing to have it farther away. I prefer to locate the garden on land slightly sloping to the east or south, but no water should be allowed to flow over it from adjoining land. It should be thoroughly under-drained; nothing will pay better, and I would advise three-inch tile drains every thirty feet, or even closer, if the land is very heavy. Make it rich. If you are starting new and the land has not been manured before, I would plow under a coat of manure, and then top dress after it was plowed, and after that give a light top dressing each year. On thoroughly drained land it pays to plow in the fall, and then, when the land dries off in the spring, a good harrowing with an acme, disk, or spring-tooth harrow, will give a perfect seed bed. It is wise to locate the garden on loamy, black land, if possible, as it is warmer and earlier than the light-colored clay soils; and if it must be located on a heavy clay spot, it will often pay to draw sand on it to temper it, and it will be a great help to occasionally grow a crop of clover and turn under on a part of the garden, as no other crop will so favorably affect the mechanical condition of the land, and it will add humus and nitrogen to

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the soil. The most important thing to be done is to get the garden clear of weed seed. This will reduce the labor of cultivating more than half, and add greatly to the appearance of the garden. The rule must be that no weed shall ever be allowed to go to seed in the garden. This is not a difficult rule to carry out, and after a few years brings its own reward. As a help to this, plant such crops as mature at the same time adjacent to each other, and as soon as they are past use remove them and work the land thoroughly and plant something else. It pays to keep the land at work all summer growing useful crops, but never pays to grow weed seed. For example: Early peas, lettuce, spinach and radishes are all past use in June, and about nine farmers out of ten leave this land to grow weeds for the rest of the summer. I plant these four early crops beside each other, and as soon as they are past use, clear the land and put in some later crop, such as late tomatoes, cabbage, sweet corn, beans, etc., etc. Many farmers do not know what crops will endure frost and what will not. The following are all hardy, and we plant them just as early as our under-drained, fall-plowed land can be worked in the spring: Beets, lettuce, spinach, onions, cress, celery, cabbage, radishes, and peas, may all be planted early, and will not be injured if the ground freezes hard after they are planted, and slightly after they are up. The first thing we use from the garden in the spring is rhubarb, early in April, and about the 20th of April we begin using asparagus, and con-

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tinue until peas are in use, which is early in June. Lettuce, radishes, spinach and cress are in use the latter part of May, and from the 1st of June until frost, and later, we have a constant supply and succession of vegetables in great variety and abundance, and the garden furnishes fully half of our living. We plant peas about four times, which gives us a succession from the 1st of June till August. We plant the small early varieties of sweet corn in April, and continue to plant once in two or three weeks until July 4th, which gives us green corn for nearly one hundred successive days. Of small fruits, a few square rods in each of the following will furnish a succession for many weeks, strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, currants and grapes. A small plot of each, well cared for, will give better results than twice as much neglected. Attention to these things will enable the farmer to enjoy in abundance luxuries which others, who earn their living by their labor, and are nearly of the same means as the farmer, must use sparingly.

The Farm a Base of Supplies.

The wise farmer will not only have a good garden and small fruit plantation, but will also plan to furnish as nearly as possible all the provisions for the family. Eggs and poultry of the very best can be had in the greatest abundance. Butter, milk and cream of the best quality and always fresh and good can be had in unlimited amounts, and these are costly

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luxuries in the city and found in abundance and perfection only on the tables of the wealthy. Then the family meats can be home produced, for pig pork fed for lean is both wholesome and palatable and can be cured and kept the entire year. Fresh beef can be had by exchanging with neighbors all winter and can be dried for summer use and an occasional lamb during the year will give variety to the home furnished meats. It seems to me to be one lame place in farm management that so many farmers buy at the groceries that which might be produced at half the cost and of far better quality at home. Too many farmers stop at the production of wheat, corn and grass, and when, as at present wheat is fifty cents a bushel, pay the price of an acre of wheat for what they might have produced on twenty square rods. The wise farmer will produce a surplus of such things as his grocer will buy and sell him enough so that at his monthly settlements the balance will be in his own favor rather than that of the grocer. Even a small farm will furnish an abundance of family supplies which often will be worth to the farmer more than eight per cent. on the taxable value of the farm. I know a case in which the owner of a farm containing sixty acres of tillable land and thirty acres of pasture kept an account of his sales and made a yearly estimate of what the farm furnished his family for a series of years, and as this man was engaged in other work and hired all his farm work done, he could tell just what it cost to produce his crops. The statement

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rendered was for an average of ten years. The farm was managed with reference to first supplying the family wants and then to meet the labor expense and make a profit. Mixed farming was followed and the sales were from fruit, potatoes, Irish and sweet, hay, clover, seed, a moderate amount of dairy and poultry products, pigs, an occasional cow, horse or mule, wheat, etc. The farm, tools, and teams, were valued on the tax duplicate at $3,500, but he made his estimate on a basis of a valuation of $4,000. For the ten years the average cash sales from this farm were $650. The average cost of labor $330, and this included board, for the help boarded themselves. This deducted from the cash received left $320, which is just eight per cent. on the investment. He claimed, however, that this was less than half of his profit and gave the following estimate of what the farm furnished his family each year:

House rent	$150 00
Milk, butter and cream	75 00
Vegetables	52 00
Fruits	50 00
Poultry and eggs	50 00
Bread-stuff	32 00
Meats	75 00
Total	$484 00

which represents just twelve per cent. on the $4,000 investment. This gentleman insisted that he did not give the farm all the credit it deserved, for he kept a driving horse, which was fed from the products

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of the farm, and the rent of his house was much less than one as good would cost in a village and either the dairy products or vegetable the family used would cost over $100 a year bought in the market and would not be of as good qualty. But if we leave out the house rent and take the other figures as they stand, the farm is still credited with an amount which represents over eight per cent. on its value. I have given this statement, which I believe to be a fair one, because it is my opinion that few farmers plan to make the farm supply the family wants as nearly as they ought and might, and in estimating the profits of the farm are likely to overlook the items of home supplies which it has furnished. Yet I can see no reason why the farm should not receive credit for all it furnishes the family, as well as for that which is sold. I believe no other class of men of the same means can afford so many table luxuries as the farmer who plans to make the farm first of all serve the family. One thing not to be overlooked is, that all which comes on the farmer's table from home supplies is fresh and unadulterated, while those who rely on the groceries get stale vegetables and many products of doubtful purity.

Large or Small Farms.

The question as to whether a large or small farm is best, is not to be settled in a paragraph or by a sweeping decision, for it will depend to some extent on the individual and to some extent on the amount

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of capital invested. Some men have the business capacity to carry on a large farm, and when this is done the owner can use to good advantage machinery that would not pay on a small farm. He can also raise and feed stock to better advantage than on a small farm, and with a car load or more to sell at one time can go to a better market. I believe, however, that the majority of farmers will succeed better on a small farm, and that the farm is always too large for the farmer if he owes for a good part of it and cannot reduce his indebtedness. The farmer will be able to do better work who has a cash working capital and no debt than the man who owes for a part of his land. Remember that quite a small farm will furnish the family table, and that this has been shown to be an important factor in the profit of farming, Then much time is lost on a large farm in going back and forth and drawing crops from distant fields, while a small farm brings the work under the master's eye and near at hand. It is easier also to prepare a perfect seed bed and give that thorough cultivation which produces the best results on a few acres than on many, and the profit of farming does not depend so much on acres as on bushels. In fact, if our statistics are to be relied on, about all the profit in farming comes from crops which yield above the average, for the average yield of wheat hovers around twelve bushels to the acre; of corn about thirty bushels, and of hay less than a ton to the acre, and it is easy to see that no man would get rich or

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be even likely to get out of debt on such yields as these. The man who has learned to manage a farm of from twenty-five to fifty acres so as to have an assured income sufficient for his wants, has less care and worry than the one who farms 200 acres to reach the same result, and there are thousands of farmers, yes, tens of thousands, who are doing this on farms much less than twenty-five acres. The great mistake made by many young farmers is in buying more land than they can pay for, leaving them no working capital and nothing to improve with, as all they can make after supporting the family must be paid in interest on debts, and a man so situated soon loses courage and very rarely does his best. Few farmers have ever tested the possibility of an acre of good land, but thousands have worked a hundred acres so indifferently as to get a scanty support for the family from it. Old Mother Earth is so indulgent that the ignorant and the lazy can live on her bosom without fear of want, but she reveals her secrets and opens her generous stores only to the thoughtful, earnest man who thinks and plans as well as works. Intelligence counts for as much on the farm as in the store or shop, and the more intelligently we work the greater the pleasure we shall take in our work. As it takes greater intelligence to get an average income of $100 an acre from a small farm than ten dollars an acre from a large one, to my mind the pleasure of managing the small farm is greater. My own greatest success and pleasure in farming has

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been from the thorough cultivation of a few acres, and if I was again on the threshold of life, beginning at the foundation, I would secure a small farm near a good market and follow intensive farming.

Maintaining Fertility.

Some one has said, "He who makes two blades of grass grow where but one grew before is a public benefactor," and it is equally true that the man who wantonly and selfishly reduces the fertility of the soil is an enemy of his race. There should be but one test of good farming, and that should be profit from the land without impoverishing it. God did not make the earth and place man on it to starve because its fertility should be exhausted like a worked-out mine, but the earth is a laboratory in which, under the guidance of an intelligent mind, plant food can be elaborated to meet the wants of successive generations. It is a wonderful provision that this fertility is locked up in the soil, so that the greed of man can not exhaust it, and that good farming increases available fertility. No intelligent farmer, in purchasing a farm, would look for one on which light crops had been grown for a series of years, but he would choose the one on which heavy crops had been grown, though the lands lay side by side and were of exactly the same formation. Again, how wonderful that the earth can take the offensive and poisonous excretions of animals and, by the alchemy of her wonderful laboratory, transmute them into

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golden grain, luscious fruits, and delicious vegetables. The maintaining of the fertility of our farms is our greatest privilege and highest duty. Three methods are at our command. First, the saving and application of stable or barn-yard manure. Second, the use of commercial fertilizers, and, third, green manuring. On all farms the first and third should be constantly used, and on many all three. I propose to take up in the order named these three methods and try to show how best to use them. To begin with, the making and saving of stable manure. One would think that a farmer who had dug two hundred bushels of potatoes or harvested eighty bushels of corn, or thirty of wheat on a well-manured acre would ever after be an advocate of stable manure and would plan to save all that he possibly could. But, even now, in the last year of the nineteenth century, when, in all of our older States, our lands have been cultivated from fifty to one hundred years, and the virgin fertility is exhausted, about one farmer in ten manages his manure intelligently and fully half the farmers lose more than three-fourths of it. I have just returned from six weeks' lecture work at the Farmers' Institute, during which time I have traveled two thousand miles zigzagging over the State of Ohio, often entertained at the homes of farmers, and always watching the farms that I passed, to try and see whether or not they showed evidence of fertility and how the farmers were managing the manure, and in a majority of cases it seemed to be about as bad

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as it would be possible to make it. The straw was either left in the field, or a wood lot, or stacked on some rocky hill-side sloping to a brook for the very purpose of having the land washed clean by the rains. The barn-yard often contained an acre or more, so that the manure dropped was soon tramped into the mud, and a large per cent. of the stock fed out doors along fence rows and in muddy lanes. From one animal well bedded on a tight floor and fed always in a stable, more manure can be saved than from ten managed as I have seen on many farms. It is of special importance that we save the urine from our domestic animals, as it is of much greater value than the solid excrement. From experiments carefully made at Cornell University it was found that the average weight of the voidings of horses, liquid and solid, was over fifty pounds a day, or at the rate of over nine tons per year, and I presume that a cow would void an equal weight. The following tables show the value of the liquid and solid droppings of horses, cattle and swine, the estimates of value being based on the amount of nitrogen, phosphoric acid and potash they contain, at the same valuations which are used in estimating the value of commercial fertilizers, namely, fifteen cents per pound for nitrogen, eight cents a pound for phosphoric acid and five cents per pound for potash.

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Fresh Solid Excrement.

Horses, value per ton	$1 36
Cattle, " " "	86
Swine, " " "	1 79

Fresh Urine.

Horses, value per ton	$8 62
Cattle, " " "	3 14
Swine, " " "	3 06

These figures are taken from a modern and reliable work on Agricultural Chemistry, and were ascertained by chemical analysis. I have been in few stables that had tight floors, and have known farmers to bore auger holes in the floor of the stalls to let the urine escape so that they would not be wet. What should be done, is to make the floor water-tight, and then give the stock a comfortable bed which will absorb all the urine. Plank floors can be made water-tight by laying them double, and using gas tar, and sand between the two layers of boards, but better and cheaper in the long run will be concrete floors, made exactly as the walks described in the beginning of this chapter, except that for horses, the concrete should be five inches thick, and the topping or liquid stone, a full inch. For cattle, four inches of concrete and three-fourths of an inch of topping will answer. There are large areas in Ohio where the farmers sell their straw to the paper mills at about $1 a ton, in the stack. The fertilizing value of the straw alone is $2.44 per ton, but when a ton of it

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has taken up one or two tons of urine, which, without it, could not be saved, it greatly enhances its value. Certainly no farmer can afford to sell straw and let the urine go to waste. Another point to be considered is, that the manure from some kinds of food is much more valuable than from others. The animal adds nothing to the food that passes through it, nor does it take much from it of its fertilizing value, and so the manure from a cow fed on bran would be worth three or four times as much per ton as from the same animal fed on straw. One-third less food will keep stock in good condition when fed in a warm stable, and with good mangers and feed boxes, there need be no waste of food, and nearly all the manure can be saved. The barn-yard should be small and every foot of it covered with straw or some other good absorbent, so that when the stock is turned out for drink or exercise there need be no loss of manure. When used on special crops manure is often of great value. I have made $10 or more on each load on a sweet potato crop, and the land would show the effect of it for many years to come. Where I used the manure at the rate of sixteen loads to the acre, I dug one bushel of salable potatoes to the square rod, and they came on early and sold at $1.50 a bushel, or at the rate of $240 per acre. Where no manure was used I got only a peck to the square rod and sold them at $1 per bushel, making $40 per acre. How the manure should be handled to get the most benefit from it depends on the crops it is to be

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used on. If it is to be used on a sod field to be plowed for corn, I prefer keeping it under cover and drawing it out and spreading it during the winter. It is best, however, to let it accumulate for a month or more in a shed or stable where stock runs loose to tramp it, as this keeps it from fire-fanging, and it is always moist. I have a stable at the rear of my horse stable into which the stalls are cleaned every morning, and here we keep young horses, mules or cattle loose to tramp it, and we always get rich, good manure here. If, however, the manure is to be used in the garden, or for onions or sweet potatoes, we find it difficult to get it fine enough under cover and prefer to pile it in an open yard and mix the horse and cow manure together. The rain helps to decompose and fine it, but no water from the barn roof or from adjoining land should be allowed to reach it, or there is danger of its leaching. By feeding hogs on the heap (which should be flat), for a few days, and turning it once or twice, it can be made as fine as desired. One ought to be able to manure an acre thoroughly for each two horses or cattle wintered, and with a suitable rotation followed, the land will yield good crops for several years from one manuring.

Commercial Manures.

The method of maintaining fertility by the use of commercial fertilizers is comparatively new, and there is a great difference of opinion among farmers as to the value of this method. Many farmers are sure

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that such fertilizers only act as a stimulant, just like whiskey on the human body, and that their use will ultimately ruin the land. It is but fair to say that the men who hold this opinion are usually those who have used but little fertilizer, but have jumped at a conclusion from hearsay or a single experiment. On the other side, there are tens of thousands of farmers who know that they are well paid for the cost of fertilizer, first, in the increased yield and improved quality of the wheat to which it is applied, and second, from its effect on the grass and clover, which is sown with the wheat, and as a heavy growth of grass, and especially of clover, always helps the land, there can be no question that the good effect of an application of fertilizer often lasts for several years. The trouble is, that many farmers buy and use fertilizers without knowing what their land needs. The wise plan is to experiment with different kinds until you find out what particular element of plant food your soil lacks, and then supply that. In many cases money paid for nitrogen is wasted, while potash and phosphoric acid pay largely. Always seed to grass or clover when using commercial fertilizers on wheat, so as to get the benefit to both crops, and indirectly to others which shall follow. Do not neglect manure or any other source of fertility, because it is cheaper and easier to put a sack of fertilizer on an acre than to draw ten or fifteen loads of manure, or to fill the soil with clover roots,

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but be as careful of all other means of maintaining fertility as you would be if commercial fertilizers had never been invented.

Green Manuring.

Perhaps we might use a better term than green manuring, for our most intelligent farmers do not favor plowing under green crops as a rule, but find greater benefit from keeping the soil mulched as much of the time as possible, and inducing as much growth of roots in the soil as they can. One of the most successful farmers and best writers in Ohio, Mr. T. B. Terry, lays it down as a rule that "a covered soil is always improving," and that "mulching is nature's method of restoring fertility." As the limit of space for this chapter is nearly reached, I will confine myself mostly to one plant, which has proved to be the best of all for the purpose of maintaining and restoring fertility. I refer to clover; for in all the ways in which a soil can be helped by a crop grown on it, this stands pre-eminently the best. It was for many years a mooted question with scientific investigators whether or not plants of any kind could appropriate nitrogen from the atmosphere, and it is only within a few years that this important question was settled in the affirmative so far as clover and other plants belonging to the family known as the "Legumniosa" are concerned. This is a question of great importance to farmers, because, first, nitrogen is the most costly element of plant food, and the

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most easily lost from the soil; and, second, about seventy-six per cent. of the atmosphere is nitrogen. It is wisely ordered, too, that the clover plant shall store in its roots the greater part of its fertilizing value, so that while utilizing its foliage for stock food, even growing a crop, first of hay and then of seed, from it, we are still able to greatly help the soil. Let us first ask and answer the question, "How does clover help the soil?" I answer, first, by plant food added; second, by improving the mechanical condition; third, by inducing chemical action in the soil. The plant food added is drawn largely from the subsoil and atmosphere, sources unavailable to a great extent to most of our valuable plants. Its long and large roots penetrate the subsoil, and its smaller feeding roots fill the surface soil, while its abundant foliage draws plant food from the atmosphere; and as has already been said, this is mostly stored up in the roots, where we are obliged to leave it for the benefit of the land. Perhaps most farmers have not weighed and compared the weight of clover roots with that of the foliage, but scientific men have, and report that more than half the weight is in the root, and that the roots are also richer in plant food than the tops. That clover helps the mechanical condition of the soil to a great extent is known to every farmer who has ever plowed a clover sod. Its small, invisible roots have traversed every part of the soil, and when we put a harrow onto a clover sod, we get better pulverization from once passing over it than

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from two or three times on a field which has been in corn or wheat the previous year. The fact that the field works easier and is kept free from weeds with less trouble, is not the most important one connected with its mechanical condition, but the other fact that the roots of our cereal plants can easily penetrate it and find and appropriate the plant food that would otherwise be locked up beyond their reach, is of still greater importance.

Chemical Action

is induced in the soil by the dense shade of the clover plant, and this is one of the most important helps to the soil and perhaps the one least understood. Many years ago an English farmer bought a poor farm and in tearing down an old barn one of the large doors was carried out and laid down on a field and remained there a year. The next year this field was plowed and to the surprise of the owner this spot produced a rank growth, looking as if a heavy coat of rich manure had been applied to it and this difference was noticed for several succeeding years. The publication of this fact led a farmer in New Jersey to begin a series of experiments in shading land with crops grown on it, and these experiments led him to conclude that there was no other way in which we could so cheaply and rapidly improve our soil. No other plant enables us to shade our land so thoroughly and so cheaply as clover, and if our land is impoverished we certainly cannot afford to pasture our clover

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after harvest the first summer after it is sown. By cutting the wheat stubble quite high and then a month or six weeks after harvest cutting clover and stubble together, taking off the track clearer so as to leave what we cut evenly distributed over the soil, we can get it well mulched, and cutting the clover thickens it, and this mulch also helps its growth, and usually by the middle of October we can have a perfect mulch for the winter. Then if we do not turn on the clover in the spring until it begins to blossom, it will be mulched nearly all summer, or if left for hay or seed, the land will be well covered most of the summer.

Clover derives much of its nitrogen from the atmosphere, absorbing it through its large leaves; it also goes down into the sub-soil, pumps it up from depths beneath the reach of other plants. The tap roots of clover have been found extending from six to ten feet into the ground taking up their food, nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash. He who can grow a good crop of clover has but little need for commercial fertilizers.

In the selection of seed use that which is best adapted to your soil, taking care that it contains no seeds of foreign weeds which are so liable to give you trouble. A small pocket magnifier will be found of great service in testing the purity of the seed.

This chapter has not been designed to treat exhaustively the subjects on which it has touched, but rather to be suggestive and to prompt the reader to

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thought and investigation. It is written from the standpoint of experience and enthusiastic love for the life and calling of the farmer, and with the earnest belief that the young man who chooses the life of a farmer and studies it as earnestly as the successful professional man does his profession, will make a success of it and never regret his choice.

Waldo F. Brown

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Engraved for Practical Book for Practical People.

E. B. Pierce

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Money in Gardening.

By PROF L. B. PIERCE,

SUMMIT COUNTY, OHIO.

IT is customary, in making figures on yields and profits in farming, to deal in large numbers and a good many acres. This is partly necessary, as there are less fractions of days in ploughing, or harrowing, or seeding ten acres than in one acre. The same method can be followed in gardening estimates, and is often, in fact, done *by novices.*

I have heard farmers figure on a cabbage crop something in this way: "Five thousand cabbages can be grown on an acre; two ounces of seed will produce the plants; twenty ounces, costing not more than $5 and occupying a seed-bed of say four square rods, will plant ten acres. The labor of growing the plants and planting the ground should not cost more than $3 per acre. The cultivation may all be done with a horse. Allowing one-fifth for failure to head, and it leaves 40,000 heads, which would sell for at least three cents per head, which would bring the comfortable sum of $1,200, more than many farmers receive from a whole farm of 150 acres." If the man

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who does the figuring is of a hopeful turn of mind, he will not stop here, but will instance cases where cabbages have sold for $6 and even $10 per hundred, and show how it is all clear profit, except $5 for seed and a few days' labor. The salient points in the estimate are the five-dollar start in the spring and the thousand-dollar finish in the fall. All the rest is slurred over in an easy lumping of details.

The difficulty of getting 50,000 healthy, vigorous plants from thirty ounces of seed, the perils of transplanting, the heavy manuring, the heavy handling in the fall, the limited market, the fight with flea-beetles, the green worm and the green fly — these little details are but trifles in comparison with the grand round-up at the close of the season.

Like the traveler who goes to sleep in Chicago and awakes in Pittsburg, the start and finish are realities, the rest is but a dream.

I was once walking along a railroad track in the city of Akron in October. At the foot of an embankment was a little board cabin or shanty, and beside it was the finest patch of cabbages I have ever seen. They were so large and beautiful that I stopped to admire and count them. Apparently 100 plants had been planted, and I judged three or four had been cut for eating. There were standing, with the exception of the missing ones, as close as they could stand, seventy-eight perfect heads, that would weigh ten pounds and upwards. The contrast between this little plot of cabbages and the jimson weed and

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sweet clover four feet high, that grew everywhere around on the narrow strip of waste land where the shanty stood, was an object lesson of beauty and value. Doubtless the dweller in the cabin was a laborer on the track, and the cabbage patch was the result of work at morning and evening. In the early spring he had rescued the ground from its captivity to jimson and melilot, laboriously digging out the roots with pick and shovel, and bringing into subjugation the soil for the little garden. Later on, when the rains of May and the hot sun of June had softened and warmed the rich new soil, his wife had procured the plants and set and watched them until they had taken root in their new abiding place, and begun that vigorous growth that ended so successfully in the autumn months. It would hardly be safe to guess how many times that cabbage patch had been hoed that summer, or how many times daily that woman had been out and peered into the spreading leaves, nor how expert she had become in detecting the slightly darker shade of green that located the destroying worm. It was evident that this little garden, with its single crop, had been a labor of love from the beginning, and that much besides nitrogen and sunshine had been wrought into those massive cabbage heads. Did it pay? Probably that cottager and his wife had not figured very largely on the financial aspect of the matter, and perhaps if they had kept count of every hour's work spent with their cabbage patch, it would not have shown a very large

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labor profit. Even at ten cents a head, the cabbages did not equal a week's wages of the man.

From another point of view, however, there was a good deal in this cabbage patch. It would furnish four large cabbages per week for twenty weeks. Fifty pounds of cabbage, or seven pounds a day, was no slight addition to the family larder! What a godsend eighty cabbages would be in the cellar of many a family this winter, whose children go hungry to school, and all of whose supplies come from the hand of charity. One-fourth of the population of Russia is said to subsist upon black bread and cabbage soup, and many of the peasants are as contented with this fare, if they can only get enough of it, as a cow in a clover field.

During the last weeks of June, in the county where the writer lives and the county next south, there were 12,000 men laid off from work, and now seven months after, in the midst of winter, and with families suffering for the necessaries of life, more than one-third this number are still unemployed. Suppose these men had emulated the example of the Irish cottager, and each made a garden in some neglected corner or vacant lot, how much more comfortable and self-respecting would be their condition to-day. There was abundance of time, and, within the reach of many, abundance of land, to have made the finest kind of a garden, and a spade, rake and hoe, used industriously during July and August, would have made their cellars groan with the store of food they contained.

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The writer was married in May, 1873, and moved with his bride into a nearly completed house July 1st, and made a garden the next day, and it was in many respects a model and successful garden, planting being confined to such vegetables as had time to mature, such as lettuce, pease, beans, summer squashes, turnips, cabbage and cauliflower, and Swedish turnips, the plants for the three latter being purchased.

Within a little ways from where the writer sits is a garden of about an acre, belonging to an old gentleman eighty-four years of age. It was plowed about June 6th and planted soon after. The main crops were beans of several varieties and potatoes; besides these were cucumbers, cabbages, tomatoes, squashes, early and late, muskmelons, Lima beans, pole and dwarf, lettuce, radishes, beets, parsnips and salsify. All of these were a success and fully matured, except the Lima beans, although the production of melons and tomatoes was greatly curtailed by a frost on the 26th of September. This was in Northern Ohio, thirty-two miles south of Lake Erie.

About the time this garden was plowed, I planted on much higher ground, twenty rods away, sixty-eight hills Livingston's Market muskmelons, and twenty hills Stokes' Early watermelons, and harvested 120 ripe muskmelons and over fifty ripe watermelons, the latter beginning to ripen eighty-four days from planting, and all maturing in five weeks, or 119 days from planting the seed in open ground. Part of the muskmelons escaped the September frosts, and we

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had ripe ones until about October 20th. Cucumbers planted the last of June in vacancies among cabbages, on the same hill, produced a fine crop of pickles, the elevation carrying them safely through frosts that killed vegetation on the old gentleman's garden on the flat below.

Within the city limits of Akron, a laboring man bought a lot of one-third of an acre, and last spring had it ploughed and made a garden upon it. It was a piece of black sod, on a creek bottom and five or six rods distant, and just high enough to escape all ordinary high water in summer, although sometimes under water from ice-gorges in winter.

It was planted mainly in potatoes, but had a patch of sweet corn, cucumbers, tomatoes, snap beans, summer squashes, and a few late squashes. The harvested product was twenty bushels of potatoes, 200 ears of sweet corn, about a bushel of cucumbers, a few tomatoes, eight winter squashes, and a fair family supply of snap beans and summer squashes. Some pole beans did not mature, and the tomatoes mostly rotted as did the same fruit all over the city. When it is remembered that it was unsubdued land; that cultivation was all with the hoe, and done not when it was just the best time, but as the man could do it nights and mornings, it will be seen that there is money in gardening, even for a laboring man. The owner will probably continue to grow a mixed lot of vegetables, but this little plot of ground offers exceptional advantages for such crops as celery and

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cauliflower, which bring relatively high prices, and require large quantities of water, which in this case could be either pumped with hose connections from the creek, or carried in buckets, the distance being small. On the bank of a race or open conduit, taking water from this same creek, is a bit of dry, gravelly soil, perhaps one-third of an acre in extent, where an old man has been quite successful in growing cabbage and tomatoes, in seasons of drouth, by watering by hand. It was seven or eight feet above the water, and he put a plank on two stakes reaching out over the water, and dipped water with a pail at the end of a rope. I tried to get the man to change to cauliflower, as that would, if nicely grown, as it could be with water so handy, net him three times what he could get from cabbage and tomatoes, but he would not experiment. This garden was entirely fertilized with liquid manure, made by keeping a large cask filled with manure and filling it from the race. When the lye got too weak, the contents of the barrel were thrown out, and a new supply put in; but I doubt whether as much as two wagon-loads of solid manure was used in a single season. Under this system of soup-feeding, however, the ground got pretty well exhausted of humus, and the liquid food had to be supplied prêtty often to secure vigorous growth.

I once knew a man (an Irishman) who spent nearly sixty years of his life as a laborer, on railway construction and street improvements. He got too old to do such work in competition with the young and

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vigorous Italians, and so became crowded out. He owned two acres of land inside the limits of a growing city, and he turned his attention to gardening.

About this time he took a contract for carrying the mail out of the city to four country post-offices, the extent of the drive being thirteen miles and return. This trip with a one-horse wagon in cold weather, or when the roads were bad, took all day, but during the summer months he could make it in six hours. The trip had to commence at nine o'clock, so he had only the ends of the day for gardening. He got his ground plowed in April, it being a sandy valley between two hills, but the clay roads outside of the city kept bad until nearly June, and the old man, when he did his best, had little of the day left for gardening. He managed to put in a few things, but the weeds grew apace, and he got discouraged. One day he went into a saloon to brace up a little, and got to telling over his troubles.

It happened that the saloon-keeper, unlike the most of his class, liked to work, and cultivated a fine garden in the morning before topers got around. Hearing his neighbor's complaint, he advised him to plow under his weeds and unpromising experimental garden and start anew with late cabbages. The roads would be good from then on, until the cabbages were ready for market, and that quarter of the city could easily consume all he could raise, and probably half the crop could be marketed right from the garden, without hitching up a horse to move them. The

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old man had expended $10 in seeds of potatoes and vegetables, and could not be induced to do as advised; until finally the saloon man got out of patience and said: "John, I am not going to let you make a blank fool of yourself if I can help it; now I'll tell you what I will do. You go ahead and plow it up and plant to late cabbage, and if you do not sell more than $100 worth after giving them the best care you can, I will pay you for the seed you plow under, and what it costs to plow and replant." This was Saturday, and on Monday, after brooding over his tough-looking garden over Sunday, he took his friend's advice, plowed under what had started, and planted the nice, warm, mellow soil to Flat Dutch cabbage. One day in the fall John came into the saloon and laid down a twenty dollar gold piece. "What will you have," said the saloon-keeper. "Nothing for that," said John; "that's for you, to pay for the good advice you gave me about planting cabbages; I have sold $170 worth from a little over an acre, and haven't got quite through either." The saloon man did not take the money, but, instead, advised him to stir around the neighborhood and engage enough manure to grow another crop the next year, and if he did not get time to draw it, hire some idle teamster to do it. This advice was also taken, and the old man continued to carry the mail and raise cabbages for eight years, when he relinquished the mail carrying, and grew cabbages until he cut up the ground into building

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lots, and sold each one-sixth acre lot for twice what the whole two acres cost him thirty years before.

An old gardener recently died whom I had known for many years, and who made a success of a very unpromising piece of ground. It was a side hill, and very sandy; in fact his neighbors, who owned parts of the same hill, stripped off the top, and sold the sand below to the depth of more than twenty feet, for making mortar. It was quite steep, and when the man begun he had lots of trouble with midsummer rains, which completely wrecked his nice garden two years in succession. He had been a ditcher for a good many years, and thwarted the evil influences of water in a good many different places and ways, and was not going to yield in this case without a struggle. I do not know that I can make his plan plain to my readers, but will try. The hill had a steep slope to the south-east.

He dug slight ditches along the side hill, running north and south, about thirty feet apart. These, running partially corner-ways of the slope, were not nearly as steep. These little excavations he sodded, so they were no longer ditches but turf steps, with just a trifle of inclination toward the hill. They were not more than sixteen inches wide — just wide enough for a narrow footpath. He then planted his garden in rows, running north-east and south-west, or exactly at right angles with the slope. In this way the rows were nearly level, and being intercepted at each end by the turf-bar, could not mass enough water to cause

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a washout. If the rain fell faster than each row of sandy soil could absorb its portion, then the surplus flowed along to the turf and flowed slowly through the grass to the foot of the hill and passed off in the roadside gutter. As the land was cultivated by hand, no horse work being done, this scheme worked to perfection, and a dozen years of profitable gardening was done on this sandy hillside that threatened to conquer all known practices of applied gardening.

This man was extremely ignorant on many subjects (for example, he believed that the little black ant, the cabbage maggot and the cabbage aphis were different stages of existence of the same insect), but he hit upon two crops for his side hill which probably made him more money than any thing else he could have grown. These were strawberries and Egyptian onions. The strawberries were set in July or August, and the onions a month or six weeks later. The former were planted two feet apart, and the latter midway between. This warm soil was warm also by location, being protected by woods on the north, and facing south-east; besides, being close to the city, gave extraordinary results in the way of earliness, being from eight to ten days earlier than my own sandy soil, six miles out. He was practically free from late spring frosts, that often cut short the country strawberry crop or kill the first week's bloom, and growing berries within two minutes' walk of many customers, he was sure of the best prices going, and realized from two to five cents per quart more

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than country growers. Last summer, before I had been picking strawberries a week, his were done. He sold sixty-four quarts at twelve and a half cents, and twenty quarts at ten cents, making $10 worth from less than four rods of ground. From the same ground, between the rows, and a little additional piece, in onions alone he sold of bunched onions $17 worth, or of the two crops in one spring, at the rate of nearly $1,000 per acre, which was probably twice what the land was worth. The rotation was two years in strawberries, with onions between, and after picking the strawberries the second time, the whole was put in onions another year, when an entirely different crop was planted, such as potatoes, tomatoes or cabbages. He had about one-third of an acre of level ground, on which he grew cabbages and tomatoes, and his entire garden was less than two-thirds of an acre, with rarely more than half an acre in cultivation, and his annual receipts were from $100 to $160. He owned a house and lot besides, the rent of which boarded him, and the gardening gave him exercise and a comfortable supply of pocket money. Fertility was kept up by some kind of compost, some liquid manure, and occasionally some commercial fertilizer. The manure used to make the liquid was mostly cow droppings from the roadside. The manure in the compost was, I suspect, mostly night soil, but the old man would not admit it, as there is a strong prejudice in cities against vegetables grown on ground fertilized with this substance. Personally I do not

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believe this prejudice has any foundation in fact, or that vegetables are ranker grown in ground manured with night soil, than if heavily manured with any other unrotted rank manure; but, after all, the old gardener was wise in keeping his own counsel. A very successful and businesslike gardener of my acquaintance added to his gardening the business of cleaning vaults, the work being done at night, of course. The contents of the closed wagon was taken to his barnyard a little ways out of town, and covered as unloaded with dry earth and road scrapings, and then with partly rotted compost. So thoroughly was this done that the next day his neighbors would not know by the odor that whole tanks of the foul stuff had been unloaded, and this compost was often six or eight months old before it was applied to the ground, yet in spite of this carefulness, the village finally boycotted his berries and vegetables, and he found it best to rent his farm and engage in other business elsewhere. This is, however, a digression from what I had in hand — the old gardener's methods. He was a striking illustration of a nice adjustment between methods and results as influenced by surroundings.

The most successful cultivators of the soil have been those who adapt their crops to the locality and soil. The old gardener was a ditcher by profession and it was second nature with him to move dirt with a spade, of which the fork of the gardener is but a modification. His side hill with its turf water bars,

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and small area, called for hand preparation, and here his life-long habits exactly suited the demands of his garden. Situated right in the midst of customers, he did not need a horse for delivering goods, and so he could not take advantage of the suburban gardeners' mode of keeping up fertility, by cleaning stable yards and drawing manure. Instead, he devised a system of his own, and gathered in a wheelbarrow the road-side droppings of cattle, and put them to soak in a huge cask that always stood in his garden, and this, with his compost heap made of road-scrapings and various odds and ends of vegetable refuse, and a quiet addition from earth closets, gave him about all the manure he needed. If we could all fit our work to our surroundings as nicely as did this old man, there would be less screeching of axles and breaking of cogs in the world's machinery than there is at present. He died just before Christmas, at seventy-three years of age, industrious to the last, for only four days before, I had chatted with him as he forked over a strawberry sod to be planted with potatoes in the spring. Located close to a public road by which half a dozen townships gained access to a very busy city, his methods were patent to a great many people, and not a few had learned to watch with interest his industrious and painstaking ways, and realize how much can be accomplished on a very small piece of ground, and this without expensive tools and scarcely any conveniences.

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The reader who has followed me thus far, and read between the lines in these accounts of actual city gardens, has probably began to realize that money in gardening depends on several things. These requirements may be massed under the following headings or topics. First, land; second, market; third, location; fourth, compatibility of crops with soil; fifth, energy and industry.

LAND.

As a rule loamy soils with only a small per cent of clay are best adapted to gardening. Such soils do not pack or run together in winter, or bake into adobe in summer. They may be worked soon after a rain, and weeks earlier in the spring. This latter is very important where the spring vegetables are grown, as people are always hungry for fresh home-grown vegetables and will pay liberally for first and early samples, even if the market is glutted with stale shipments. For crops that can be planted in June, clay soils can be used, provided they are rich and are not ploughed when wet. Sweet corn, Swedish turnips, winter squashes, and late cabbages may be profitably cultivated on clay, if sandy loam is not available.

For some crops the muck swamps seem just adapted. This is especially true of celery, onions, and early potatoes. The extent to which muck swamps have been utilized in many parts of the country is astonishing. In the southern part of the county in which I live, is a swamp of 130 acres. It was

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grown up to willows and alders, and generally voted a nuisance and an eyesore. A wide-awake man bought it and commenced to subdue it, and now, after ten years, it is nearly all being used in growing celery, and is claimed to be the largest celery plantation under one management in the country. It is let to several tenants, each of whom farms about twenty-five acres. The owner of the land tries to get industrious Germans, with large families of children for tenants. The children are of great service in transplanting the hundreds of thousands of plants used. Men newly come over with scarcely any funds are sometimes taken, supplied with necessaries of subsistence, seed and tools by the owner of the farm, he taking his pay out of the crop. The tenant does all the work, and receives half the net proceeds of the crop when sold. Twenty miles west of this in the southern part of Medina county is a huge swamp that has been drained by a joint-stock company, and the product of this swamp last fall, in onions alone, was reported to be 130,000 bushels, besides potatoes and celery.

These products are shipped to all parts of the country, and not depending on a local city market, location is not an important factor, save reasonable distance from a railroad switch. The question of labor is, however, an important one, and in the production of the large crop of onions referred to, it was difficult to get enough help at just the right time.

Last summer when so many shops shut down, the company thought to themselves, "now we can get

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all the help we need," and at once advertised in the daily papers of Akron and Canton for it. A good many went in answer to the advertisement, and when they found it was weeding and cultivating onions, they returned to the city, cursing the onion growers for offering them such a job. They preferred idleness and semi-starvation to weeding garden at a dollar a day. Beginners in gardening are sometimes in such haste that they overrate or underrate the capacity of the land.

It is often necessary to plant subduing crops, at first, but this will be considered more at length farther along.

Market.

Many of the most profitable garden products are perishable, and the necessity for a market within convenient distance is a very important item in gardening. There are three kinds of markets available if the gardener lives within a few miles of a large village, or a city. The best as a rule is the consumer's family, the gardener delivering at stated time such supplies as he may raise. The gardener in this case does the middleman's work, and it takes considerable time, and the salesman, or woman, must be a born peddler to make selling from the wagon a success. The customers are mostly women, and although less difficult customers as a rule than dealers, they cannot be imposed upon many times before they refuse to purchase, and often one disgruntled customer will

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make it dull work selling on a whole street or block. To make a good retailer from the wagon, one should have a pleasing address, be reasonably well dressed, and have the contents of the wagon in good shape. If the peddling is done on a high-toned, aristocratic street, it will pay to have the wagon covered, nicely painted, and have horse and harness to correspond. One can sell enough higher to more than offset the difference in outlay. The profits of peddling garden truck lies in two directions: one getting all, or a portion of the middleman's profits, the other in working off grades and varieties, that the middlemen do not care to handle.

I could give many examples in my own experience on this point for I have sold considerable stuff from the wagon in the last thirty years, and this experience goes to show that an article need not be either rotten or worthless, to have it refused by grocers and dealers, or priced so low that it amounts to refusal. This state of affairs is frequent in the smaller cities which are large enough to receive fruits and vegetables on consignment from other markets. The price of this consigned stuff is fixed by the commission man or consignee, and if he can do no better he will sell it so low as to just cover shipping and commission, leaving the shipper at some distant point to charge the shipment to profit and loss. Take the case of cabbages. After home-grown Jersey Wakefield have been in market about two weeks, shipments of Early Drumheads begin to come in freely from points 300

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miles south. These are quite loose and really weigh but little more than Wakefield, one-half the size. They are, however, showy and look big, and what are not sold the first day have the outer leaves stripped, and present a brand new appearance the next morning, and a loose leaf or two can be removed for several mornings and the cabbage present a respectable appearance still. Size attracts the eye, and as the smaller Wakefield will not bear the peeling down process, the grocer will buy the large loose Southern product and let the home-grower pass by, and he is forced to peddle what is really better in every way, or sell to the dealer for a song. The case is exactly similar in regard to Southern sweet corn. Large coarse varieties, only a shade removed from gourd-seed, come in competition with early sweet varieties home grown, and the dealer snaps at it as he did at the cabbage, for the same reasons, because he can buy it cheap and because it makes a big show.

The home-grower is left to peddle his Early Cory and Marblehead, and my experience is that early sweet corn, in competition with shipped stuff, sells to consumers with great rapidity, and at a profit often of 100 per cent over what dealers wish to pay, for although they buy shipped corn low, they have a way of making customers think it comes high.

Allow me to quote from an article written for and recently published in the *American Agriculturist*, upon this very topic. I cannot give hints from experience in more concise language.

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"A little practice and experience in putting up fruits and vegetables often helps sales and profits. For example: I know a gardener who received a sudden visitation from a horde of blister beetles, and before he could do any thing they had eaten the tops off from a fine lot of early beets. The roots were from one inch to two and one-half inches in diameter. He cut the tops off and packed the beets in quart berry boxes, which sold quickly at a nickle a box. The same man sells Early Louise, Yellow Rareripe, and other small peaches in berry boxes or baskets. A bushel will pack from thirty-six to forty baskets, and in this way beets brought from $1.75 to $2 per bushel, and peaches about $3. The peaches were sound and fully ripe, and sold quickly, because just right to cut up for the table. Six prize-taker onions about two inches in diameter, placed in berry baskets, brought a nickle per basket, but did not sell very rapidly. In seasons when pie timber is scarce, pie plant thriftily grown will bring a nickle for five stems.

I will give the exact contents of one load, so the reader may get a fair idea of the profits of peddling for three or four hours. The man had twenty-two dozen of early sweet corn, which he sold at twelve cents per dozen, except one dozen. The wholesale price that day was nine cents per dozen. He had forty-eight cabbages, of which he sold thirty at six cents each, or two for a dime. These brought $1.70. The wholesale price was forty cents per dozen. He had ten boxes of beets which had no value to sell to

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green grocers, for they wanted a larger article in bunches. The pie plant, of which he sold three bunches, had no market value. Beets and pie plant brought sixty-five cents. There were six boxes of onions bringing thirty cents, the bushel value of which was not more than sixteen cents. Finally, he had twenty-two quarts of fine blackberries which were worth, to sell to dealers, nine cents per quart. He retailed twelve quarts at twelve cents per quart, and closed out the other at ten and eleven cents per quart. This load sold at retail amounted to $7.71. At wholesale it would have brought $5.02. At half-past eleven sales began to drag, every thing being sold except one dozen of sweet corn and eighteen cabbages. These were sold to a grocer on the way home, at six cents for the corn, and two cents each for the cabbages, making the total of the load amount to $8.13. The man left home after 7 A. M., and came home a little before 2 P. M., the end of his route being just eight miles from home. In this case the gardener made $2.69 by peddling the load, or more than first-class mechanic's wages for the entire day. All days are not alike, however, and $1 may be considered a fair equivalent for three or four hours' work in selling a five or six dollar load. As a rule one cannot do much profitable peddling on Monday, but Saturday makes up for it, as one can peddle all day, and the first fruits of any crop will be in demand, and bring extra prices on Saturday."

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Although this is written in the third person it is a bit of personal experience. The selling of vegetables must mostly be done in the morning before orders for dinner are sent to the grocery, so the gardener who finds market among the housekeepers of a village or city, must live within an hour's drive, or else get up very early in the morning.

Next to selling to the consumer, the best market is selling direct to middlemen. If one has a large quantity this is the only way to do unless consignment is made to commission men. Green grocers have much to contend with, and with most careful buying often have to throw a good deal into the garbage basket. This makes them cautious, and they want from thirty to seventy-five per cent of the retail price for handling. If one grows a nice line of stuff and is pretty regular in delivering on stated days, dealers can be relied upon for buying, if the market demands what is offered for sale.

If the gardener is a large grower, the small villages are quite trying to his patience, and lucky is he if he can give such markets the go-by and take his loads to a thriving city where a hundred dealers can be visited if necessary. The trouble in small places is, that one must peddle in addition to selling to the dealers, and this angers the dealers, who do not like to buy for expected wants of customers and then have these wants supplied from the wagon of hucksters. There is no recourse, however, except to ped-

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dle, consign it to some other market or lose it, and the first is the most natural way of getting out.

There are thousands of gardeners who sell all they raise through commission men, and in many cases make money, but I have all my life been close to good home markets and know almost absolutely nothing of the ins and outs of this way. I once in a while, however, feel the effects of the system when a heavy consignment is dumped onto the market I sell in, and I have to buck against a commission man who is sure of his margin, whatever he sells for. In many cases the commission men themselves turn peddlers, and put wagons onto the residence streets, and sell half-rotten fruit and vegetables to consumers for what it will bring, or rather what the glib-tongued hucksters make the buyers think it is worth.

Location.

A young man once wrote to an agricultural paper, stating that he thought of engaging in gardening, and asked where he had better locate, and the editor answered briefly in the query column, "as near town as possible." In making up the paper the foreman found the column one line too long, and left the answer simply, "on land." For the young man the editor's answer was right, but for the majority of people who are forced, or drift into gardening, the foreman's answer was all-sufficient.

As a rule, the nearer town one is, the better his chance of success in gardening. He can more easily

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watch the market, he can get to market and back much quicker, and often take advantage of a bare market when the man miles away is not aware of such a condition.

I well remember a case in point. Saturday, in the midst of strawberry harvest, was an all-day rainy day, so much so that no one could pick, and the Akron market was sold out before noon. A large grower, two miles from town, drove in toward night, and finding what the condition of things was, he engaged an extra force of pickers and had them to work by daylight on Monday, and by the middle of the forenoon was distributing forty bushels among the groceries, at $3.50 per bushel, while the price the Friday before was but $2. The sudden rise in price made dealers slow about buying, but they must have some as their customers had been without over Sunday, and so the berries were distributed in lots of sixteen to twenty-four quarts among sixty or seventy groceries. Later in the day, when those of us who lived out eight or ten miles got to town, we found our dealers supplied with all the high-priced berries they wanted, and we were forced down to nearly the old price, as the morrow was sure to bring a large supply. The gardener in or near town can afford to go with a smaller load than the one farther away, and for this reason the man who peddles his goods entirely should be quite close, as it is possible to sell only so much in the forenoon hours. Telephones are not common in country towns, but it is often the case where a wealthy

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man with a country home has a telephone and arrangements can be made to use it occasionally. A gardener with such a chance has many advantages over one without such communication, and each morning and night can inform himself as to the wants of his dealer. A wide-awake gardener of my acquaintance overcame the disadvantage of living a distance from his market by an ingenious arrangement of his forces when he was marketing large quantities of pease, bunch onions and strawberries. He had formerly lived in the city limits, but the pressure of city growth used up his land, and he moved seven miles out. The conditions were quite different, and competing gardeners figured that they would be free from his competition, but they reckoned without their host. He hired a salesman in Akron (the place he had formerly lived in) and provided himself with three wagons; sent them to town as fast as loads were ready, those starting last in the morning working in the evening, taking in the late picking for the next day's market. His town salesman was perfectly competent, the horses could be driven by boys, and he was at home to look after his large force, and see that every thing went to town in fine order. By this scheme he combined the advantages of a town residence with a country garden, on low-priced land. The plan is a good one, and by this plan any one could carry on an extensive business, and if telephone post connection could be got within a mile or two, have a telephone of his own. Many gardeners, es-

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pecially those living near very large cities, and marketing on the curbstone or in market stalls, are compelled to drive a good share of the night, and various schemes are worked to economize teams and help. Loads are often combined, and three or four gardeners will load a two or four-horse wagon which is sent to town with a single driver, instead of four drivers, as each one-horse load would require. On Long Island, the gardeners load a four-horse wagon and drive to the pavement, when the forward team is detached to return home and plough and cultivate. The difference between the sandy roads outside, and the pavement, in resistance to draught, is found to be equal to the use of one team. The forward team is attached to a two-wheeled vehicle like the forward wheels of a wagon, and the driver rides back on this, taking the bit of hawser which attached his cart to the load. Still another way is coming into vogue, by which the gardener, many miles away, does his own marketing himself with his own team. The wagon loaded with its two tons of vegetables is driven onto a flat car, the horses detached and led into a stock car, while the driver rides in the caboose. Enough such loads are gathered to make a train load, and the whole is drawn to the city as a fast freight, and in an hour, or two, or three, as the case may be, the gardeners find themselves at the city, where they hitch up and proceed to market. These long hauls are exceptional cases, the vast majority of the consumers of garden products being reached by a few miles drive

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in a market wagon. In locating for a shipping market, the gardener needs to be careful, and should make very minute inquiries as to shipping rates, probable prices, and relative earliness. A few years ago the poor sandy soil of north-eastern North Carolina was boomed as a rare place for producing early fruits for the Northern market. Some acquaintances of the writer settled on the railroad north of Raleigh, near the north line of the State, and about ninety miles from the seaboard. They expected, and were told that they could put berries into Washington and Baltimore a week or ten days earlier than growers at Norfolk, Va. By looking on the map this appears reasonable, as it was more than 100 miles south, and it was claimed that the soil warmed up quicker than that on the coast.

Trial of the situation proved, however, that there was not more than one day's difference in favor of North Carolina, and that this day was nearly consumed in getting fruit as far north as Norfolk, so it really came into direct competition with the vast mass of fruit shipped from around Norfolk, besides being twenty-four hours older. Further than this the shipping facilities were not so good, and quite a considerable higher.

One grower, who went there with high hopes, sunk $500 in three years, and could have sunk much more before he got away if he had had it. One year's sales footed up almost $2,400, and the net returns, after paying every thing, were less than $280. The

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distance in an air line from Norfolk to Richmond, Va., is about sixty miles. In the fore part of December, this winter, there were six inches of snow at Richmond, when there was none on the gardens around Norfolk. My strawberries ripen a full week earlier on warm, sandy soil, than those of friends a few miles north, or east, on the clay dairy farms, and the clays are so much more subject to late spring frosts, that berry-growers find such localities unprofitable, even if their land is a light loam. The noted T. B. Terry, although having the finest kind of gardening land, was forced to quit commercial berry-growing, because, being surrounded by cold clay lands for miles, he was subjected to late frosts. Land sheltered from cold northern and western winds are earlier than exposed fields, or northern slopes, and a location immediately south-east of a smoky manufacturing town is warmer on similar soil than one to the north-east of the same place. As I grow both fruit and vegetables, my ideal location would be a piece of ground running north from, or out of a valley, with a tract of level land for a garden, and a hill immediately north for fruit, the hill to rise abruptly 70 or 100 feet.

However, as I before remarked, only a few seek new localities for commencing, as gardening is an outgrowth, to a considerable extent, of the demands of growing towns, and the occupation is forced onto the surrounding population — farmers and suburban

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residents changing from their former calling to that of vegetable and small-fruit-growing.

As I have shown, such near by land-owners have great advantages in location, and this can be greatly increased by careful consideration of what their soil and exposure is best adapted to producing. This brings us to the fourth topic which I proposed to discuss.

Compatibility of Crops with Soil.

No gardener of experience would try to grow celery in gravel, or watermelons or sweet potatoes in a stiff clay, for the celery would rust, and the melons and sweet potatoes not have sufficient heat. These are extreme cases, but there is a close sympathy between all crops and the soil, and the more one studies plant peculiarities and wants, and caters to special peculiarities, the more likelihood there is of success.

At a Farmers' Institute a lecturer was talking about underdraining and mentioned incidentally that the soil in Iowa was from two to three feet deep, and that it was necessary to go into the hardpan below to get a suitable place to lay the tile. "By the Royal George," said an English gardener in the audience, "what a place that would be to grow parsnips!"

I had an illustration the other day of what this vegetable will do under different conditions of soil and season of planting. I was never very fond of this vegetable and had not grown any for twenty

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years until last summer, when a neighbor handed my wife some seed and I sowed it in a corner of the potato field on ground recently cleared of trees that had never been plowed but once before. The soil was rich, but quite shallow from not having been deepened by cultivation. The parsnips grew nicely and seemed thrifty, but when I dug some they were only five or six inches long and large in proportion to the length. I might add that it was late when the seed was received and that most of it lay unsprouted through a two-weeks' drought that occurred just after sowing. I supposed when I dug the roots that they were a dwarf variety, and rather liked the change of form. I have since learned, however, that the neighbor, from the same seed, grew parsnips twenty-seven inches long, and as large as a coffee cup.

His roots were grown in filled-in soil on a terrace, and doubtless went to the bottom, revelling in the wonderful opportunity offered for stretching themselves. This shows the possibilities of this vegetable under favorable conditions of soil, season and culture, and makes one wish for some Iowa soil, and a chance to experiment with a vegetable that monopolizes the earth to a depth of three-quarters of a yard. Parsnips generally bring more than potatoes, and it seems that the growing of this root in the deep soil of the west, and shipping it to Chicago, might pay as a change from corn, for any one with an inclination for gardening.

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Such parsnips might be a bother to the retailer who was called upon to put up half a peck, but a new standard of measurement might be adopted. They could be bought at wholesale by the cord, and retailed by the cubic yard or foot.

Special preparation is often necessary even when the soil is congenial, and when this preparation is accomplished, some vegetables thrive better on the same field for a number of years than if a rotation is tried. This is true especially of onions, and they are a crop that one cannot profitably go into for a single season.

A friend came into possession of a farm on which there was a level meadow of black soil covered with a heavy sod. It had been swampy before clearing, and was really a very fine piece of land for gardening. The year after coming in possession he plowed this piece of ground and raised a crop of corn. It was very hard to work, and when plowed the next spring the surface was nearly covered with fragments of partially rotted turf from the size of a saucer to that of a small sheepskin. Onions had paid an acquaintance of this man remarkably well the year before, and in spite of the advice of gardeners, he sowed an acre of this half-wild ground to onions, buying high-priced seed, and a $7 drill to sow it with. Only a part of the seed came up, and some of this came up in a double sense, coming up the *second time* when cultivation and weeding moved the bits of turf in which the young onions were growing. As the man ought

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to have foreseen, the result was very unsatisfactory, and the crop was mostly abandoned to the weeds. If this man had grown two more hoed crops on this field he would have had a rare onion bed that would have given him a half-dozen crops, with very little manuring and probably large and profitable results. As it was, one season disgusted him, and he sold his drill at a sacrifice, and contented himself with straight farming from that time on. I could fill pages with similar examples of instances where farmers have attempted to jump from something they knew how to do to something they did not.

With soil just adapted to gardening, with a near-by market, and manure enough for all the gardening they had time for, they have miserably failed, and abandoned for always, what might have been a very profitable addition to their other crops, simply because they were unwilling to take time to learn what could be learned about the proposed experiment.

There seems to be a lack of fine discrimination in many minds between the wants of vegetables and those of grains. They fail to analyze the differences in cultivation, in growth, in habit. This is especially true of many farmers who essay market gardening. Said one to me a few years since: "I believe I shall try growing three or four acres of onions next spring. I was reading the other day about a man who got $700 from an acre. Why, if I could make half that from an acre I could afford to let all the rest of my land lie still for a year, and turn my whole attention

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to the four acres of onions." "Most likely," said I, "and it is quite probable you will have to turn the attention of your neighbors' children, and some from the village besides, to your four acres of onions." "I suppose," said he, "I *shall* have to hire some extra help in weeding, but this does not worry me so much *as where I shall store the onions after I get them raised.* It will take quite a building to hold 2,500 bushels of onions."

"Yes, very," said I, somewhat irrelevantly, "but don't you suppose you will have time to put up a building in August for storing them? Your crop will be far enough along so it will not require much attention, and if you get $1,200 or $1,400 worth of bulbs you may well afford to put up a cheap building to store this and many future crops." He thought that reasonable, and then asked where I thought he had better plant the onions. "In your mind," said I. "What do you mean?" said he. "Just what I say," said I. "Don't you think I will succeed?" said he. "Yes," said I, "if you have some fine manure, and some nice rich soil that has been in hoed crops two or three years, and have the money to buy sixteen pounds of seed, and a seed drill, and can get twenty girls and boys just at the right time, and the maggot and blight don't spoil your crop, and the season is favorable, you will undoubtedly succeed; but if I was you I would put in just one-sixth of an acre, in the garden, and plant the vegetables this will displace, over in the potato patch this year. I would give them just the best possible

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care, and see what there is in it on your land, and with your experience. At the same time, I would plant the three and five-sixths acres in my mind, and give them good care also. Every hour's attention I gave the crop in the garden I would multiply by twenty-three, and charge it to the account of a large crop growing in my mind. If it takes two active kids to keep your garden patch clean, then it would take forty-six to take care of the mental patch, and so all through the season, and you will know just what it costs to grow four acres of onions, and whether you would be equal to the task a couple of years hence, when you have four acres of ground in a condition of tilth and richness, suitable to one of the most erratic crops the gardener grows." He went away looking as if I was making fun of him, and acted as if I had hurt his feelings, but he never tried the experiment. I think he planted so many onions in his mind that he got a surfeit of onion culture, and kept on with straight farming as a kind of mental relief.

As a rule, all successful gardeners have commenced in a small way and gradually increased their acreage as they gained in knowledge and skill. This is not so necessary in the case of those who are brought up in the business or have worked with market gardeners as in the case of those who have been farmers or mechanics.

The late decline in manufacturing, and the probability that things may not rapidly return to their

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former status, will undoubtedly result in a considerable crop of amateur gardeners, and their success will, without doubt, almost entirely depend upon how much they are able to build upon previous experience or upon close observation of the practices of successful gardeners. I know a man, a machinist in a reaper factory, who is expecting to exchange his city property for a small farm, with a view to engaging in market gardening; but I fear he has some tough lessons before him, in spite of the fact that he has each year the most successful garden in his neighborhood. The trouble is, in this case, he knows too much.

He is wonderfully successful in growing a certain variety of tomato — the Ponderosa. This is not a good market tomato. It does not take with the public, and has not got the quality of standing up well, so it does not suit the dealers; yet he insists that it is the best tomato to be had, and is just as likely to plant an acre of this as a first venture as he is less. He has not yet learned that there are amateur fruits and vegetables and market kinds, and that after many years of trying, gardeners have not been able to combine all the good qualities in one variety, and that there are points, such as toughness and productiveness, that take precedence of quality. There are a multitude of little points of this character that can only be learned by experience in actual practice, or in the practice of others. The man last referred to always has fine strawberries, which he follows with

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celery, the same summer, as a second crop. The new strawberry bed follows string beans and pease, being planted in July each year.

Now, in this double cropping there is real profit, and the public, not being very particular either as to what variety of strawberry it eats or as to its brand of celery, this man will not be apt to meet with difficulty in carrying his amateur practices out in gardening for market.

He will still have to learn what varieties prove the best on the soil of his new farm, and he may learn, perhaps, that the celery-growers on muck swamps can grow celery so much cheaper than he can on ground adapted to strawberries, that he may have to make his second crop after strawberries corn fodder, turnips or six-week beans, as the rest of us do.

In spite of these decided differences between amateur and market gardening, it is more than likely that this man will succeed, as he has the true spirit of the gardener, that of getting the very most that the land will produce. To illustrate what I mean by the true spirit of gardening, let me relate an incident. Between my home and Akron the road passes through a lovely little valley called Lover's Lane. Midway in this valley is a watering-trough, nestled in the edge of the gravel bank and shaded by a fringe of trees that grow along the steep north-western bank of the ravine. On the other side of the road is a dwelling-house, inhabited by tenants that change quite frequently. The house and valley are densely

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shaded, and there is no garden spot in connection with the dwelling.

Last spring a tenant moved in, and the woman of the family evidently missed the privileges of a garden. Near the watering-trough the gravel roadside had been cut down four feet, and there was five or six feet wide of the bank left by this cut between the road and the fence. This bank got a little sun about nine o'clock, but the rest of the day was shaded by overhanging trees. On this unpromising little terrace the woman made a lettuce-bed, and in six weeks the lettuce was nearly big enough to eat.

She watered it daily and thoroughly from the close-by watering-tub, and if the family that moved in afterward (the woman only staid six weeks) had had her spirit, the lettuce-bed would have been a wonderful success. There was plenty of leaf mold among the roots where it was planted, and not requiring much sun, all that was necessary was to give it plenty of water. Neglected as it was, some of the plants struggled through the summer and run up to seed in September. Let me give another case illustrating the commercial gardening spirit. A German farmer lived two miles from a thriving village of 2,000 inhabitants. He had two girls and a boy, ranging from nine to fourteen years of age. They planted each year in the garden, about two and a half square rods of onion sets, and later on in the season bunched the onions and put them in baskets, and carried them to the village, and sold them to

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consumers for a nickel a bunch of five or six. In three years they grew and peddled from this little piece of ground over $90 worth of onions. On a piece of ground alongside, they grew each year onion sets, and sold each spring at $4 per bushel $10 worth beside those they planted out. Thus from less than six rods of ground, they realized more than average profits from four acres of wheat. This story is authentic, as I know the children who did this bit of gardening.

Take another case of commercial gardening in a small way. A very active, stirring farmer, at the age of sixty, turned the farm over to his boys and moved into a village of 600 inhabitants. His neighbors all felt that this was the next thing to suicide, as he could not keep up the activity that had seemed a part of his being when on the farm. But it seemed that he had no idea of becoming a drone. He rented or took upon shares widows' gardens and vacant lots, and begun to garden, making potatoes and sweet corn his principal crops. In this way he keeps busy all summer, has plenty of exercise for both mind and body, and I venture to say turns more cash than is realized from any five or six acres of the farm. I once knew a retired blacksmith, who bought a village home and spent his summers in the same way, growing potatoes and corn, generally renting a rich field of two or three acres of some farmer a mile or two away, and he sometimes got more bushels of corn from two acres than a farmer over the fence got from five.

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simply because he gave it all the care and cultivation it needed. I have no doubt this man lived a number of years longer than he would have done if he had quit work and spent his time holding down a box in the village store.

The reader, who has followed me thus far, will see that it is possible for almost any one to engage in gardening, and that there is money therein for any one with patience, energy and requisite knowledge.

As I have shown, much of this knowledge must come from experience, but a vast deal of help can be got from books. There are several elementary works giving plain instructions for all work and tools connected therewith, and it will pay any tyro in gardening to get some of these books, of which Henderson's Gardening for Profit is best known. What can be accomplished by going to books for information is strongly shown by the case of a man living in Lawrence county, Ohio. He was a wood-chopper, and such was his strength and activity, that he was able to cut and pile four cords of four-foot wood in a day, a feat that can only be done by about one chopper in a thousand. When about thirty years of age, he was pinned to the earth by a tree falling across him, and he was so badly crushed that his life was despaired of for a number of weeks, but after months of suffering he got around, a mere wreck of the giant he was before he was hurt. His chopping days were over, and he cast about for something he could do. He finally decided to go into the fruit business, and

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knowing nothing about it, he turned to books. His education was meagre, and he could read with difficulty, but he went to work bravely learning to read as he studied his fruit-books and papers, and now, after half a dozen years, he has come to be an authority in his line in the community, and is called upon to read papers upon his calling at the Farmers' Institutes. I have never met him, but have been told by those competent to judge, that his knowledge and practice are marvels, considering his ignorance of everything connected with fruit-gardening when he took it up at thirty years old. With such examples as this it seems almost criminal to plod along, as some do, never looking into books and making light of journals published especially in the lines they are working.

A case came under my observation only a day or two ago, where a man has lost several dollars by lacking knowledge that he might have got for forty cents. A machinist, who owns a little farm, is underdraining a field, and he has had to take up and relay an outlet drain at an expense of several days' work simply because he did not know how to do what he undertook.

A little work written by W. I. Chamberlain, and published by A. I. Root of Medina, and costing by mail forty cents, would have told him how to avoid the error he made, and probably saved him a good deal in doing the balance of his draining. The leading journals are also of great assistance in learning to garden, and the small sum that it costs in these

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days to get them is surprising. Six of the very best papers that are published in the United States upon Agriculture and Horticulture may be bought for an equal number of dollars, and if carefully read and the knowledge applied with a careful adaptation of circumstances, will be worth $100 to any gardener who raises a thousand dollars worth of truck, and in some cases would save that amount where the products were less than one-tenth of a thousand dollars. And now perhaps some reader will wonder why I have not given some of this information of a special nature in this article. Why, for example, I have not taken up different vegetables and described at length the process of planting, cultivating and marketing them? The reason is this: there are, as I have said, several such works to be had at the bookstores, or of publishers of that kind of literature, and I should be but traveling in the beaten track to rehash these works. It seems to me better to make suggestions and drop hints all along the line that would set the reader to thinking for himself, and lead him to go to those works for himself. It is not only impossible in the length of an article like this to give so much information, but unwise when the object of the chapter as expressed in the heading is considered. Money in the garden can only be made by the light of experience, and to lead beginners in the right path to find this experience is my object.

As I have several times hinted, experience in gardening is best got in small doses. In such cases fail-

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ure does not discourage to the extent of disgust or success lead to large expenditures and rapid expansion beyond the ability of the experimenter. In the beginning I gave an example of the way it was possible to figure on a ten-acre patch of cabbages.

It is possible to do the same with any other crop, as for example, by having the rows six inches apart, and growing ten to a foot of row twenty radishes can be grown on a square foot of ground. A dozen bunches of five each, bring at wholesale thirty cents. Twenty is one-third of a dozen, and this makes the product of a square foot ten cents; of a square rod $27.22½ cents; of a square acre $4,356. This is a snug sum, enough to buy a farm, and if one could have the monopoly of a city, say of 30,000 inhabitants, one acre of radishes, or even two, would not be a bad investment. It is here the trouble lies. The market is limited, and the beginner coming in competition with a hundred gardeners growing for the same city market, might find it difficult to pick up a trade of ten dozen bunches a day. There are, in fact, gardeners who are working this very vegetable, and their wagon visits during the three summer months probably forty or fifty groceries daily, and leaving perhaps 100 dozen bunches, or $30 worth. I am acquainted with a man—a man with a liberal education, and an experienced teacher in commercial colleges—who every morning visits all the offices and stores in the business portion of Akron with a basket of radishes upon his arm. He has them tied in bundles of twelve, and

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they are not larger than a small buck eye, not as large as an egg, but clean and crisp, and perfectly fresh. I have never inquired into his sales, but a half bushel market basket will easily hold thirty bunches, and this would make the basket full bring him $1.50. He has been engaged in this peddling of radishes for several years, and I should not be surprised if he had picked up a trade of sixty, perhaps more, bunches per day. I do not know how many months he follows it, but I saw him selling nice winter radishes just before Christmas. He has poor health, needs light outdoor occupation, and this is what he is doing. I understand he has two acres of black soil just outside of the city, and goes and comes on the street cars. A good many look down upon such a petty business, but I cannot see why it is not as honorable as trimming electric lights, delivering groceries, selling ribbon, or doing a thousand and one things that are done. This instance, and that I related of the German children who sold onions, goes to show how one can make money in gardening, and not have a very big garden either. I have in my library probably fifty, perhaps sixty agricultural and horticultural reports, and nearly every one has one, and some two or three papers upon "The Farmers' Garden." They are nearly all built on one plan, that is, an acre of ground in form a parallelogram, filled chock full of good things for the farmer's table. Some of the writers admit that such a garden needs a pretty large family to consume the products, but this need not trouble the owner,

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because he can sell what is not consumed. This is very nice in theory, but the actual practice does not warrant very many experiments in this line. If the grower gets what he plants the garden for, he uses the best and earliest of everything grown, he is eating cucumbers when they are worth five cents apiece and selling when they bring three cents a dozen; he eats tomatoes when they are worth five cents a pound and sells them at twenty cents a bushel, and coaxes some one to buy them at that; he eats pease at $1.50 per bushel and sells the fag end of the crop at forty cents, or less than it costs to pick and take to market in the busy summer season, and it is the same with the whole list of vegetables. It is perfectly right to eat the first and best when that is what they are grown for; I believe in it and practice it, but I grow enough so it does not take it all, and this is what the farmer should do. He should only grow of most things enough for the family, and if he wants to garden for market, make up his mind what he knows most about; what his land is best adapted to, and what he can best market without clashing with his farm work, and then raise enough to warrant going to market two or three times a week. He can in this way get and hold customers and raise a better grade of products than if he diversified his attempts. I was talking yesterday with a man who was raised upon the largest market garden in Cuyahoga county, Ohio, where they grew vegetables for the Cleveland market. He now owns a beautiful lake in sight of

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my home and runs a very popular summer resort. He has some fine gardening soil in addition to the water and this is how he makes it pay. The resort opens near the close of the strawberry season and closes September 15th. He has two acres of asparagus, and a half acre of strawberries, and all of the former and most of the latter are marketed before the busy scenes connected with the lake begin. In addition to these crops he grows summer vegetables, including sweet corn and potatoes, planting enough of various vegetables to furnish his own tables and those of campers and cottagers. If there is ground left over, this is devoted to late potatoes that can be dug after the rush is over. All the planting is done before the season begins and much of the cultivation, and the market being strictly a home market there is little clashing or interference. He has for a gate-keeper a young neighbor, a farmer, and this neighbor grows squashes and nutmeg melons. These are started and got by the danger point before the lake season begins and mostly marketed after the season closes. He keeps a hired man, who runs the rest of the farm and finds time to keep the melon patch clean besides. My own practice is along the same line. I commenced with growing fruit, having first grown the trees and plants as a nurseryman. After growing berries a year or two, I found that I could grow certain kinds of vegetables, and sell them at the same time I sold the fruit. If for any cause berries

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failed, I had the vegetables to fall back upon, and my eggs were not all in one basket.

Several wide-awake milkmen of my acquaintance are doing somewhat similar. They grow more or less vegetables, and some berries, and find a retail market at the houses where they sell their milk. A bushel of berries does not add materially to their load and adds three or four dollars to the day's receipts. Twenty early cabbages at a nickel a head adds a dollar, and so a little every day swells the summer's total to a considerable sum. In this case there is no extra trips to market, and the prices being close to retail, there is a good profit beyond what the market gardener gets who sells entirely at wholesale, and goes to market entirely at the expense of his truck. Finally, my reader friend, study the garden from all points of location, soil and market, and grow to start with those products with which you have had the most experience, touching lightly untried kinds and new varieties. Perseverance along these lines will in the end result in success.

L. B. Pierce

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Engraved for Practical Book for Practical People.

J. B. Ferry.

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Potato Culture.

By T. B. TERRY

Soils and Their Preparation.

The best soils for potato-raising, perhaps, are those varying between a sandy or gravelly loam and a clay loam, although they can be raised, of course, with more or less profit on lighter ones, on black soils, or almost any kind of land, even on quite heavy soil if tile-drained. But, do not risk them on heavy land that is not underdrained, as you may lose more than the cost of draining in a single year. It may be wise to think twice before deciding to tile-drain your land in order that you may devote it to potato-raising, to think whether it may not be more profitably used, all things considered; but if you have determined to raise potatoes any way, then underdrain thoroughly the first thing you do. "Lock your barn-door *before* your horse is stolen." Hundreds and hundreds of acres of potatoes are destroyed every wet season by stagnant water. Underdraining would have prevented this for the most part. Thirty dollars' worth of tiles and labor to the acre might have saved $50.00 or even $100.00 worth of crops. I have known of cases on

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land quite similar to my own, where the farmer met with failure for lack of about $15.00 worth of tile-draining per acre, while my land the same season brought about $100 00 per acre. The draining in this case would have paid for itself several times over. The most of my land is a loam, but some of it is almost too sandy or gravelly, and some too heavy. The heavy soil we have tile-drained; but still I find that, in a very wet season, potatoes will rot some in spite of the drains. On an average I got the most satisfactory crops, all things considered, on soil that is not quite heavy enough to need underdraining to any great extent. Such soils are light enough to work easily; the potatoes come out bright and clean, and still they are heavy enough to be strong soils, and to hold manure well, and clover does very well on them. The farmer who raises only a few potatoes for his own use need not pay such particular attention to the soil, as, if half of them are likely to rot from wet feet, he can plant a larger patch; or if they do not come out bright and clean, they are for his own use But the man who raises acres of potatoes for market should grow them where they will come out looking nice, if possible, as that helps to sell them, and he cannot afford to plant where there will be much danger from wet weather rot or seed rotting, or where it will take a very large amount of labor to prepare the soil properly.

To my mind, in this age, it is unwise to try to make our land do what it is not best fitted for. I could, I

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think, take the heaviest clay on my farm and make it good potato land. This is possible, but I think it far wiser to use land for this purpose that is naturally about right, and use the clay for what it is best fitted. Great success in potato culture will be on soil reasonably fitted for the business naturally. The business is changing, and the market is less and less supplied with a few loads from every farm, and more and more from great acres where the business has been gone into on a large scale, under favorable conditions. On unfavorable soils there will be little profit in trying to compete with the last-named growers, except, in a small way for home market.

Fall Plowing.

I do not think there is anything gained by fall plowing sod land designed for this crop, unless one is troubled by grubs or wireworms; and there is a better way to manage these — not to have them — that I will speak of in the chapter on "Rotation." If the soil is very heavy and lumpy, the frost may pulverize it a little more than it otherwise would if it is turned up in the fall; but such soils are not profitable ones to plant potatoes on any way, you know. I have found it just about as much work to loosen up and pulverize the soil five or six inches deep, in the spring, where it had been fall plowed, as it would have been to plow it and pulverize it both in the spring. This, for rather heavy soil.

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On light soil, one might gain some time in the spring by fall plowing; but there is another serious question to consider, particularly for farmers with light land. In this latitude, with our open winters and heavy rains of fall and spring, we shall lose more or less fertility by having our land plowed. It leaches downward with the water. In the far north, where the land is locked up by frost most of the time, it will not make so much difference. Farther south it will make more. As a general rule, unless you have some good local reason for doing otherwise, keep something growing on your land just as nearly all the time as possible. This practically prevents loss of fertility. Let the sod stand, with its live roots in the soil, until the ground is dry enough to crumble off the mold board in the spring; then, if you are ready to plant, turn it over and plant at once, and get something else growing. Keep land busy as well as yourself. Doesn't it need rest? Yes; but a change of work (rotation) is a great rest to it, and all it needs. Give it any more and you lose. If you have a corn-stubble to plant next year with potatoes, sow rye or something to occupy the land till you plow for potatoes. I had a half-acre of stubble land last fall that I wanted to plant this year, and not having rye, I sowed wheat thickly. I shall have a nice growth to turn under by the last of April. Some of that fertility I should not have if I had not sown the wheat, and had its live roots constantly on the

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watch to catch up any stray drop of fertility. When I turn under the wheat it will quickly become plant-food again for the potatoes to use.

All About Plowing.

A deep soil, deeply plowed, is undoubtedly best for potatoes; but this deepening should be done very gradually, say an inch once in two or three years, until you get your soil as deep as you can turn over with a plow. Drought is one of the greatest enemies of the potato crop; and a deep soil will the best withstand dry weather. Again, potatoes are naturally a deep-feeding crop. We have land we plowed eight inches deep, and some even more than this. The soil we turn is now about twice as deep as when I began farming here, twenty-three years ago, and I feel certain I am working in the right direction.

I want lap-furrow plowing, the furrows on edge, and just over a little, so they will not fall back. I do not want the surface of sod turned over flat onto the subsoil by any means, but scattered through the soil, where the roots will grow. A plow of this kind will not draw as easily as one with a longer and less blunt mold-board; but it does the right kind of work. Of course, there is a jointer on the plow, and a wheel to regulate the depth. These are as necessary to me, almost, as the plow itself. Without the jointer the grass on the upper edges of my lap-furrows would make trouble; as it is, there is only mellow soil

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there. The jointer, or little plow, attached in front of the large one, cuts a furrow about two inches deep, and throws it into the big furrow, where it is covered by the furrow-slice from the large plow. The wheel gives uniformity of work all through the field, and slightly decreases the draft.

In plowing in the spring for potatoes, one should be very careful about tramping ground unnecessarily. Winter frosts have made it loose—just right for potatoes. It is easily packed too solidly when horses tramp on it, as it is usually moist at this season. I got through "plowing around" years ago. We back-furrow in lands; and, if the lot is not too wide, all in one land, so as to have no dead-furrows. It takes a little more time, but we do more perfect work. Take one of our strips, 16x60 rods. Beginning in the centre, say ten feet from one end, we go down and back, and so on around, drawing the plow across the ten feet or so at the ends, just plowing lengthwise. When within ten feet of being down on the sides, we plow the ends too, thus finishing up the lot.

In the fall we put in wheat without plowing. When it comes around again in the rotation, we start the plow ten feet, say, from one end, plow down one side; stop ten feet from the other end, draw the plow across the end; plow up the other side; draw the plow across the other end, and so on. When done we plow the ten-foot head lands all one way, one at a time drawing the plow back. Thus we get land back level, and the horses hardly tramp on it at all after it

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is turned. I wish I could harrow it with a balloon, so the horses need not tramp it.

Notice that my lap furrow plowing, with the edges of the furrows up in the air, and the grass shaved off and buried out of the way, is in a grand shape for the smoothing harrow. What would be the sense of turning over a furrow flat and smooth, and then use a cutting harrow to dig it up again, when one can leave it up loose and save half the harrowing? These matters may seem very simple to experts, but many are not experts, and this is the A B C of potato culture, you know. That jointer pays in two or three other ways. Properly set it puts all sods under, and nothing will harrow up—a small matter some may think; but sod is plant food; potatoes feed down the soil, and if sods are on top, the roots cannot get them that year. See? Again bits of sod are in the way of using harrow, weeder, etc. Success in the future, sharp as competition is, must come from careful attention to the details.

On my soil I have not found sub-soil plowing to pay. I have a plow and have tried it faithfully. It might do good under some conditions; but I would not advise any one to go into it very largely until he has found by actual experience that it paid.

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HARROWING.

After the ground is plowed in the spring, work it down moderately fine soon after it is turned over, before it has time to dry out. It will work easier then than ever again, particularly if there should be drying winds and no rain. It is not best to work down potato land, before planting, as fine and as firm as you would for wheat. It is better to do a part of the working and pulverizing after the crop is planted and before it comes up. You kill two birds with one stone, and you do not get the land packed so solidly. Potatoes do best in a fine light, loose soil. It must not be packed as wheat likes to have it. I now prepare land partly before planting and partly after, and keep all weeds down at the same time. There is less tramping and packing of the ground, and still as perfect preparation, and weeds as well kept down.

A favorite way with me to prepare a field for potatoes is to attach three horses abreast to a Thomas smoothing-harrow, which will be described in another chapter; put a plank across the three sections, and get on and ride. This weight sinks the teeth in to the wood-work usually, and does a large amount of pulverizing at a rapid rate, in going once over the ground, and it pulverizes quite deeply. The work is done soon after plowing, before the ground becomes hard and dry. This is a great point. After the lumps once become dry and hard, the smoothing-harrow will not have much effect on them. The safest

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plan is never to let the lumps dry. If it is very drying weather, hitch on to the harrow after dinner, and harrow down what you plowed in the morning, and the next morning work what was plowed in the afternoon. "Why pulverize the surface soil? The roots do not grow at the top." Well, there would be danger of the cut seed drying up in a dry time, if we did not, and fine soil acts as a mulch to prevent the lower soil from drying out, and, of course, the harrow teeth go down in so as to fine the soil below some also. Now, after harrowing just this once, we have often rolled the ground and gone on with the planting, and considered we were doing the best we knew how. If there are hard spots in the field that the smoothing-harrow will not work down properly, if used on time, or if the entire field is in such shape that more working seems to be needed, we go over it with a cutaway, or disc harrow, cross-wise, lapping half, then use the smoothing-harrow again lengthwise, and roll. The first time over with the smoothing-harrow, we go the same way we plowed, so as to push the furrows over rather than tear them up. A set of three horse whiffle-trees, for three horses abreast, is a good thing as you can go right along then, with weight enough on to set the teeth well down. Let me advise if you use a cutaway, or disc in preparing potato land you do not go lengthwise, as your rows are to run, but exactly at right angles, or cross-wise, and the slight ridges made by harrows will then bother the least. I should explain, perhaps, that my clover

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sod, on which no stock ever runs, is very mellow usually. With less favorable conditions, more harrowing (the use of the cutaway) might always be needed. Again, some years the ground seems much more mellow than others. You get the point why I do as little tillage as will answer, before planting. But you must not overdo it. Small-cut pieces of seed would dry up if the surface were too coarse.

If there is danger of rain, do not roll ground any faster than you can plant, as the harrowed surface will dry off after a rain quicker than a rolled one, and the water will not run but soak down where it falls.

A friend put in a part of his potato crop one year thoroughly well, and a part of it for lack of help, not quite so well, and he says that he can see now, after digging, that if he had paid $5 or even $10 a day for help to put in all his crop as well as he did a part of it, he would have been the gainer. This statement coming from a farmer who raised 650 bushels of potatoes from nine bushels of seed, is worth remembering. Large paying crops rarely come without a good deal of hard work. The extra labor required, if properly managed, does not eat up the extra crop, by any means.

Manures and Their Application.

If wanting to apply manure for the direct use of the potato crop, I would leave my year's manure over until fall, and then along in September or October, when most convenient, I would draw it out and

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spread evenly on the surface of sod ground that was to be plowed the next spring for potatoes. Care must be taken that the manure does not waste while being kept over.

If it heats much you lose ammonia. If much rain falls on it, the soluble parts wash out. Cement floors in the stables, and my barn-yard covered, and manure spread evenly over the yard, and tramped, and some land plaster sprinkled on the surface occasionally, will keep it perfectly for any length of time. Without a roof over the yard you may pile it away from the eaves and surface wash, mix the different kinds together, encourage stock to tramp it by putting up rubbing posts on the pile, thus preventing excessive heating and waste; cover lightly with earth in the spring, and have a pile in very good shape for fall use, without much trouble or loss The manure spread on the soil any time in the fall will suffer no loss. It will not be likely to wash away any during the winter, as the soluble parts will have been carried down in the soil by rains, and the grass or clover roots will take care of them. Great care should be taken to spread this manure as finely as possible. If spread by hand, one may harrow it with a smoothing-harrow, or bush it; and I would do this most thoroughly even, if possible, until not a trace of the manure could be found. Perhaps, you may think I put this too strongly, but I mean it all. In many cases the farmer could realize double what he does from his manure by making it so fine that every bit

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of the soil would have some, instead of it being turned under in lumps. I have spread manure as evenly and carefully as possible in the fall; and then when it was rather coarse to use a smoothing-harrow, or bush on, I went over it three or four times in the spring with the cutaway harrow. This was on clover sod. You ought to have seen how nicely it fined the manure, and worked it into the surface soil. Manures so spread in the fall will be worked into the soil in the best possible shape for potatoes, if you do your part. I would not, as a rule spread manure on plowed ground or stubble land in the fall. It is a wasteful way as well as fall plowing. In the spring when you plow a good sod manured as above, in the way described in the first chapter, you will have a good foundation for a potato crop.

I cannot advise the application of manure during the winter and spring, for potatoes. Fresh manure is more liable to produce rot, in a wet year, and scab is likely to be made worse by it, and the quality of potatoes will not be so good. This is simply a general rule. There are exceptions. I know men who follow this practice. It seems to be all right for them. But I have learned not to risk it, by bitter experience, and so have many others. I once manured a field with fresh manure through the winter and spring. The yield was large but badly scabby. The other field, the same year, without any manure at all, but clover, gave an entirely smooth crop, as usual. You may safely draw manure out fresh for corn. But I

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would not take the risk for potatoes. When a dry season follows the application of fresh manure to potato land, I have had the yield actually reduced by the manure, and then so much was left that the wheat following was overfed, and got down so badly that we wished we had never put any on. I would never bother to put stable manure or compost in the hill or drill in field culture. It takes a good deal of time in the busy season of the year and I think it is no better than to apply it broadcast and finely pulverized in the fall. If it is finely pulverized and mixed with the soil, the roots will find some of it when they start, and they will surely find it all in time, as before the tops are full grown, if you plant as near together as you should, little rootlets can be found in every square inch of soil, searching for food and it is better that they should find their food widely and deeply scattered, as then in case of drought, they are in better shape to get all the moisture there is in the soil. Manure in the hill may give a quicker start; but it is the steady, healthy, vigorous growth from beginning to end that fills the basket the most times on the acre.

It is now no use for the majority of growers to try to get the earliest potatoes into market to get the highest prices, as some farmer living further south will have them before you do, and ship them up and supply your market before you possibly can. Here in Northern Ohio, potatoes are sometimes lower in July than in November. We must strive to raise

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the largest possible crop at the least possible cost. Broadcasting the manure will help us, I think, to do this.

Manuring the Renovating Crop.

I have now given you what I believe to be the best way of applying manure directly to the crop, and perhaps, I shall surprise you when I say that I believe that a potato-grower can do better than this.

The idea of putting the manure on to the money crop, or the one taking the most hand labor, so as to get profitable returns, has a strong hold on the minds of our farmers. It had me once, but it has lost its hold. We follow the best rotation I know of for a potato farm where no stock are kept — a three-year one of clover, potatoes, and wheat. The clover is a renovating crop, you know. It draws on the air and sub-soil as well as on the soil, for nitrogen; and it pumps up mineral matter. If we can make it big and strong enough, we can get all the fertility we need for pretty good crops of potatoes, or wheat. If, now, we use the manure to make the clover grow big (put it on the young clover), will it not then be stronger and ranker, better able to send its roots into the sub-soil still more deeply, and to gather still more nitrogen from the air? Again, clover is the safest food we can feed potatoes. It is least likely to produce scab or rot, or to do any harm in a dry year. The potatoes so fed will be of the finest quality grown. I mean, of course, those fed on clover roots (a clover

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sod turned under) and more or less of the tops. Again, the manure can be put on at a time of the year when we have the least to do, and when as a rule the ground is hardest and dryest and when we shall do the least injury. "The man who can get a big clover crop can do just any thing he has a mind to."

Manure is saved with care, on cement floors and in a covered yard. It is put on our young clover right after we get the wheat into the barn. It is put on with as much care to have it fine as I have advised above. It is put on the parts of the field where it is most needed; and much care is taken to do this, as we never have enough to go all over. I notice, particularly, when we cut the wheat, where the manure is wanted. Small clover may not need manure. It may be small because the wheat was very heavy and kept it back, and the land be rich enough. Where the wheat was thin, and the clover small too, a double dose is needed. You see the point? We use our manure with the utmost care to help us get a heavy growth of clover all over the field, on every square rod, and then we are all right for our future money crops. Some reader may think that manure put on the surface in midsummer will lose much of its value by evaporation. This is a common opinion, but not founded on fact. I have often seen farmers draw manure out and put in piles, and not spread it until they were ready to plow it under, so as to prevent any loss. Did they ever stop to think that, if

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this world had been made that way, fertility could not have been built upon the surface? There was no one here for ages to plow under the manure of animals or the growing vegetation; no, they remained on the surface, and eventually the soil became rich. You cannot practically evaporate nitrogen, phosphoric acid, or potash, and these are the three ingredients that we need in manure. Did you ever boil down any lye in a kettle? No, it remained in the bottom, and water only went up in the air. Just as if you set a pan of water and potash out to slowly evaporate; just so if you put in nitrogen or phosphorus. These substances will not evaporate in the form given above.

Under no combination of circumstances can you evaporate any mineral matter. But if you pile up your manure and let it heat, thus changing the nitrogen into a volatile gas, ammonia, and you spread this manure out, the ammonia will go to waste at once. But you will lose only the trace that was present when you spread it. After manure is thinly spread, practically no more will be formed. The slight amount you lose is of little account. Doubtless you would lose as much every day if you left the manure in a heating pile, where ammonia was constantly forming. But practically I keep my manure from heating and forming ammonia by having it spread all over the covered yard, and tramped so as to pretty much exclude the air. The manure does not rot. I do not want it to. I want to use it on

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the surface. It has two values I am after. The first value is the actual plant-food in it. Then, by using it on the surface, I get a mulching value. Little by little the rains leach the plant-food down. Meanwhile the refuse portions, straw, etc., shade and cover the surface between the young clover plants. It is a great law of nature that bare land grows poorer and shaded land richer. The manure is so finely spread that it decays so not a trace of it will rake up in the hay. I feared trouble in this way, but have had none. If poorly spread, it might not only decay, but would smother some clover.

How much manure shall you put on? Well, applied in the above way, and for the above rotation, I would, if I could, use enough to grow as heavy a crop of clover as could well grow, both the rowen after the grain, and the first and second crops the next season. The potatoes would stand higher feeding, but the wheat would get down, and will some anyway.

Commercial Fertilizers.

I had half a notion to skip the fertilizing question entirely. I confess I do not understand it. There are good men, and true, who report wonderful results from the use of fertilizers on potatoes, who consider them just as truly plant food as stable manure, and who say that no other manure should be used for potatoes, as fertilizers grow the smoothest and best ones. Several times have I tried fertilizers with

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great care, and you may rest assured the manufactures would not send me a poor article. I will tell you of one experiment.

S. C. rock phosphate, pure ground bone, and Mapes potatoe manure (a so-called complete manure for potatoes) were used. Muck had been applied to the land, which contained much nitrogen, and potash was abundant naturally, and so in theory the rock phosphate was just what we wanted. The complete manure, containing every ingredient necessary for the growth of a crop, was certainly all right, but it might cost too much, as some of the ingredients might not be needed. Experiments were made in three different lots, on strips fifty to sixty rods long, using at the rate of 600 to 1000 pounds per acre. Great care was used in the measuring, weighing, etc., that the ingredients might be accurate. I will not take space to give full details, but will simply say that, much to my surprise, no benefit was derived from any of it. There was a slight variation in yield, but no greater than could be accounted for by the natural variations of the soils. It was a wet season. The next year was quite dry, and the same ground was in potatoes again, but no difference in growth or yield could be seen on these plats.

The experimental rows in one case run across a piece of rather poor land, where the yield was much below the average. Here, I thought I would surely see good results, but was disappointed. Rotten stable manure will increase the yield every time, even

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when the land is already rich; now, why will not a complete manure, containing all the ingredients of stable manure do the same? Rotten manure would have done so. That same season, by the use of stable manure, freely applied, a half acre was made to yield more than 200 bushels.

In spite of these experiments, when a circular came one spring, with a picture of a fine large potato (450 bushels to the acre) grown with the potato manure, and a little scabby one (120 bushels per acre) grown with animal manure, I could hardly resist the temptation to order a carload of the fertilizer. There was such a difference in the potatoes (in the picture). This is not told to condemn the use of all commercial fertilizers, but rather to induce farmers to experiment more, know more what they are about, and whether a thing pays or not, and not to trust to theories and fine circulars, or even the experience of others entirely. I have no doubt that fertilizers in bags sometimes pay. But do they pay you? That is the question. A thousand pounds of potato manure, put on an acre, would cost, in Ohio, perhaps $25.00. It is a big question, whether you can not better get the same amount of fertility, and in a shape that can always be depended upon, in $25.00 worth of wheat bran and oil-meal, to be fed out with your straw and corn-fodder. Then you will be your own manufacturer, and you will get the feed value for your labor in the winter when there is not much else you can do.

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In regard to the use of fertilizers, please remember me as cautioning you to keep your head and know certainly whether they pay you before investing in them to any great extent. They certainly cannot be depended upon like good stable manure. I do not stand alone in this view either, by any means. Arrange to save all the manure you do make, with great care, and grow clover for all it is worth. I believe you can thus avoid buying nitrogen, at least for a long time. In the older settled localities, mineral matter may be needed now, or soon. When it is, experiment and get it in the best way you can.

Prof. Thorn, Director of our Experiment Station, after a great amount of study, in his bulletin, "Forty Years of Wheat Culture in Ohio," says: "These statistics indicate that the crops of Ohio have been slightly increased by the use of commercial fertilizers; but it appears that the average cost of this increase has equaled its market value.

When and How Far Apart Shall We Plant?

When shall we plant? The plan which I stick to is, not to start the plow until the ground is dry, then plant as soon as I can get ready. This rule followed out every year for my farm, and the medium early potatoes that I grow, gives, I think, the best results. Of course, we miss it now and then, as we should if we planted at any fixed time. But we think the average results of early planting is best. I have had

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early planted potatoes injured by dry hot weather during the last two or three weeks of their growth, while those planted a month later lived through the dry time, and made a fine growth during the wet weather which followed the drouth, and yielded double what the early planted ones did.

I will take the chances and plant early, regularly. With favorable weather right after, potatoes may not be injured greatly by being frozen down. They will come on again any way, side sprouts coming up from the main stem. A slight frost, which only blackens some leaves, is of little consequence.

I have now given some of the objections to early planting. There are many advantages. We are quite likely to have showery weather here in July, and that is a good time to have a crop ripen. It is a great advantage to have them ripen slowly. Blight seldom injures the early planted early potatoes. They are out of the way before blight weather gets around much.

When and How Far Apart Shall We Plant Potatoes?

The crop is secured before the hottest and dryest weather of the season, as a rule. An early crop is very seldom injured by rot. There will be now and then a year when the early crop can be carried through so as to yield quite well, and a dry, hot, fall injures the late crop seriously. But we do not sell

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early. We dig as soon as ripe, so as to put in wheat, but sell when we can do best — usually late years, along in October.

In this latitude, Ohio, I would not plant at a medium time. If not early, wait until late, and have the potatoes ripen during the cool weather of the fall. Many large growers all over the country practice this plan. They have one advantage — they can sell from the field as they dig, and will lose less shrinkage; but they do not have as good weather to do their work in, as a rule.

Distance Apart.

In regard to the distance apart that potatoes should be planted, two matters are to be taken into account. First, the shading of the soil keeps it from drying out as much as it otherwise would in dry, hot, weather. The moisture from a shower will be longer evaporating. More of it will evaporate through the leaves of the plant and less through the soil directly when the potato-tops cover the surface. The soil will be enriched by the shading also, or the tendency will be that way. Therefore, it would seem best to plant near enough together so that, in a fair season, the vines shall grow together, almost like a crop of clover, shading the surface quite perfectly.

Second, the distance apart that potatoes should be planted depends somewhat on the richness of the land. With wheat, the richer the land the less seed

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should be sown, because it will stool out more on rich land than on poor; but with potatoes, just the reverse seems to be true. The richer the land the nearer together we may plant. The idea is this: There is only a certain amount of plant food available for the crop, therefore, vary the distance apart as nearly as possible, so that there will be just about potatoes set to use up all this food in growing to nice, good, size. If you plant too far apart, the available plant food will not be all used up, and your tubers may be too large; if you plant too near together, there will not be food enough, and the result will be smaller potatoes. Of course, as seasons vary, you cannot expect to be always right; but you can come nearer to it than if you put in your seed without any care or forethought.

Now, with these two matters in mind, try to come as near right as you can. For the medium-early varieties that I grow, and my soil, drills about thirty-two inches apart, and pieces of seed from thirteen to sixteen inches in the drill, seems as near right as I can make it. This pretty much covers the surface, and still is not close enough to make tubers smaller than my customers want. If I wanted tubers larger, I would drop pieces farther apart in the drills. Thirteen inches has been our rule; but a variety like the Freeman, which is inclined to set a good many in the hill, will, I think, do better at sixteen inches apart. They will average larger and still not too large. I tried them thirty-

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two inches both ways, and some grew altogether too large, and the yield per acre was not nearly what it was with a piece every thirteen inches in the drill. Of course, the variety has much to do with the distance apart they should be planted. Some of the strong growing late varieties would be better planted in drills thirty-six inches apart, and will well cover up the surface then. Varieties that have small tops, and set few tubers, such as the Early Ohio, will bear putting closer together, or using more seed than one eye in a place, as we do. If your land is poor and you plant far enough apart to get good-sized tubers, you see you will then lose part of the benefit of the shading of the soil. Does it bother you to see how to manage this? Only one way—make your land richer, and then you can plant closer, and shade it more, and make it grow richer still. "Unto him that hath shall be given" every time. It seems hard, but it is nature's law.

Shall We Plant Deep or Shallow?

With this question we must consider, also, whether we will cultivate nearly level or hill up; for, if we plant shallow, it will be necessary to hill up more or less to prevent the tubers from growing out of the ground. Farmers still raise potatoes by planting in a shallow mark and then hilling up with a plow of some kind when they are about two-thirds grown. On undrained clay soil, where there is danger of

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stagnant water injuring the crop in a wet season, this practice had better be continued, on the ground of choosing the lesser of two evils; but in good potato soils, moderately deep planting and very slight hilling is undoubtedly the better practice. There are reasons, of course, for this hilling up, which is so universally practiced. Farmers did not have smoothing harrows, horse hoes and good cultivators years ago. The plow came first, and was made a general purpose tool. It would throw earth over the weeds and save hand-hoeing. It was, very naturally, used for this purpose. The practice was a necessity with shallow planting. It increased the crop in one way and protected it, while injuring it somewhat in another. Father used to insist on my making the hills large and dishing, so as to "catch the rain." But with all due respect to our fathers and other people, I cannot help thinking now that this plan was not in accordance with common sense. If you will wash out a hill in mellow soil, you will find, before the tops are half grown, that the little roots have crossed and recrossed all the space between the rows, and, of course, they want their water as well as food, just as much there as under the hills. If the seed was put in moderately deep, and the surface is kept nearly level and constantly stirred, the crop is in the best shape, not only for catching rain, but to endure hot, dry, weather — one of its greatest enemies. One hills up his potatoes with a plow; what does he do? He piles the mellow earth which should make a mulch

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all over the surface up about the hills. Instead, he leaves this space (where a part of the roots are) bare, hard and exposed to the hot sun. If he should cultivate it again he should injure the roots, which are now at the surface (not a few also were destroyed by the plowing), and the soil in the hills will certainly dry out more than if it were down nearly level and protected by a mulch of fine earth. We generally use a horse-hoe once during the season to throw a little earth under the plants when they are about half grown, so as to check the weeds which are just starting in the hills; after that the shade from the tops will keep them down. The use of the cultivator, as many times as it ought to be used during the season, will work a little earth towards the plants, so that, altogether, perhaps, the hills are two or three inches higher than between the rows when we are through cultivating.

Suppose your field is somewhat rolling and potatoes well hilled up. A heavy shower comes along. Most summer showers are heavy. The water runs rapidly off the higher portions of the field in the little ditches you have made, and either leaves the lot entirely, or accumulates in the lower parts. This is all wrong. Where you want the water most it does not stay. See? Where you want it least, in the low places, you get too much, perhaps, or you lead it off the field entirely, and later your crop suffers for want of it. And there is more or less fertility in the water of every summer shower. It gathers ammonia that

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has escaped from the manure heaps of the careless farmer, as well as that from other sources, out of the air as it comes down; and it is a positive loss of fertility to let water run off over the surface of your field and carry fertility with it. A part of these losses, often nearly all, can be avoided by good drainage first, natural or with tiles, and then nearly level culture, and, at the same time, we may get every possible advantage that ever came from hilling up, except on heavy land in a very wet season, perhaps.

On my land I have settled on four inches deep as about the right depth to plant. I would put seed a little deeper rather than shallower. Managing rightly, with smoothing-harrow and otherwise, there is no trouble in keeping a crop clean without any hand-hoeing, and to do it more cheaply. There is no need of hilling to keep the weeds down. By planting four inches deep, and the slight hilling spoken of, we get a depth of underground stem sufficient for throwing off roots and tuber-bearing stems, just as practically as though we planted shallow and hilled up. I am writing with reference to drill culture, which I think best, and will speak of in another chapter. You will notice that I do not speak of "level culture." The term, although in common use, is misleading to those not posted. Exactly level culture is not at all practical, except during the first part of the season. A little earth must be worked in under the plants, for reasons given, usually; and

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then, again, the expanding tubers will crack the soil and let in the light, to their injury, if the surface is entirely flat.

Shall We Plant in Hills or Drills?

There are many reasons why the farmer who wishes to do the best he can should give up the hill planting for good, and put his crop in drills. It requires less handwork to keep the crop clean if you can work it both ways, is the usual reason given for planting in hills. That was all very true a few years ago, but now we have so much better tools that is possible to put the crop in drills, and keep it clean without any handwork or hoeing at all, as a rule. Another argument is that it is more work to drop the seed (there are more pieces to be dropped), and more work to dig the crop. Yes, and it is more work to mark out both ways than one way. However, we have a machine now, and the potatoes are of more uniform size. After many years of experience in drill-planting, I feel perfectly sure on this point — perfectly sure that we get more dollars to the acre. In showery weather, when planting in drills, one can plant right up as fast as he marks; but if he has to mark both ways he may get caught, and have to do the job all over again.

Drill culture and nearly level culture should go together. One may not always be advisable without the other. Let me illustrate: I drop, we will say, a one-eye piece every foot in the drill, in my drill culture. Perhaps two or three good-sized tubers, not

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over large, but of quite uniform size, are the results in each hill, or every foot in the drill. Now, as they expand as they are growing, they crack the ground, of course, but, as there are not many in a place, not much. The little earth that our slightly-ridged culture puts under the plant prevents light from getting down to the tubers, and they are not only not green, but not even yellow. Potatoes are often ruined when not green on the outside. Now, suppose that the potatoes were planted in hills three feet apart each way, and three times as much seed put into the hill. It would not be too much, perhaps, or more than is generally used. Say you have, as a result, twelve or fifteen tubers in a hill. Will they not crack the ground very much more? Of course.

With proper management, on suitable soil, drill culture, deep-planting and very slight hilling, promise the up-to-the-times grower of to-day the best returns it is possible to get.

What Varieties Shall We Raise?

We are now ready for the seed. The best variety for one to grow depends upon several circumstances. If for early market, you want very early ones — this for the gardener with a home demand, or for growers who want to ship to more northern markets. If to get off in time for wheat, the medium early varieties, Beauty of Hebron, New Queen, and others, ripening about the time they do, will be best in this

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latitude. They can be gotten off in good season for wheat, and, as a rule, will yield better than extra early varieties, under similar conditions. If planted in this locality, these medium early ones put in quite early will make a crop before summer drouth gets very severe, as a rule. If you live in a region where winter wheat is not grown, and you are in no hurry about getting them off, and they can as well as not have more time to grow, varieties ripening later, such as the Monroe Seedling, Empire State, Rural New Yorker No. 2, etc., may be the proper ones for you to plant.

Now, perhaps, from the title you expected to find out the names of the varieties you had better plant. But this I do not propose to tell you. In fact, I do not know. The same potato varies greatly in different localities. For ten years, perhaps, the Hebron did us grand service. We could not find any thing so good for some years. But I have sent some to good growers, who were induced to try it again because it did so well for us, and they have reported that it failed miserably, as usual, with them. It has been a standard variety, succeeding well quite generally; but, you see, with notable exceptions. I have sent potatoes which yielded 300 bushels per acre with me, to parties who never got one-third that amount, although other kinds in the same lot gave large crops. Try promising new varieties in a moderate way, and find what is best; and don't depend too much upon the yield of one year. A different season

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may give very different results. Again, new varieties soon dwindle out. Be honest with the old kinds when you test something new side by side with them. See that they are side by side, and treated exactly alike. How natural to give the new kind the best place and extra care! The same attention might make your old variety surprise you.

I would not be understood as saying that you never need any thing new, or that your potatoes will not "run out" in time, with the attention, at least, that it is practical to give them. I know they will; so don't hold on to them too long. As we manage, at least, we need new blood from time to time. It seems to me that getting seed of the same variety from a locality more favorable for the perfect growth of potatoes is for a time equal to getting a new variety. Good potato soil in the far north is, of course, the place where the potatoes do best. There are places where 400 bushels per acre are as easily obtained as 250 are here. I have practised changing seed in this way.

When the Hebron began to decline I went to Northern Maine and got my seed. Seed has also been bought in New York state in a good section.

As a rule, varieties of an inferior quality are large yielders, and the kinds of high eating qualities are not the most productive, at least, under ordinary conditions. You must select qualities to suit your trade. To sell in market you want a kind that is known and in demand. In our markets, almost all early pota-

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toes except early Ohio sell as Rose or Hebron. Everything that at all resembles them goes under this head. All long white potatoes in the fall are Burbank.

Selection and Care of Seed.

My usual practice has been to use for seed only nice, smooth, perfect-shaped, well-matured tubers, in size varying from medium to large. Very large, overgrown ones, and those that have prongs on, or are otherwise ill-shaped, are carefully excluded. In short, I use for seed just such potatoes as I should like to have the crop all be in the fall. The best time to select these is at the digging time, when they are first thrown out of the ground. I have even gone so far as to follow the digger, and select the best potatoes from the best hills, hills perhaps where the yield would be double the average of the piece. With this much care in the selection of seed one need not be as much troubled about his seed running out. It certainly will not run out so quickly. Some good authorities think it would never deteriorate, as I have told you. What farmer would think of sowing his wheat screenings for seed, or planting the corn from the poorest ears he could find? Not one! They select their best corn, or at least, a good average, and sow good wheat or clean it up and sow the best. Why not do as well by the potatoes?

Selecting the best seed from the best hills at digging time paid me. I would still do it, but we use a

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digger now. When we dug with forks it was practical; it is not so now. The best we can do now is to select the best part of the field and pick out the best potatoes from that place.

Care of the Seed.

After being picked out, the tubers for seed may be carefully taken to the cellar, without the sun being allowed to shine upon them, and stored in barrels. These barrels should be covered with old carpet, and then every care taken to keep the cellar as near the freezing point as possible, and not have the potatoes actually freeze, from the day they are put in until they are taken out to plant. I should like to keep the temperature between thirty-three degrees and thirty-four, if possible, all winter, and I have gone to a good deal of trouble to try to keep it so. The object is, of course, to keep the tubers from sprouting. At the same time, your apples and other vegetables will keep much the better for this low temperature.

Of course, you know your cellar, and will run no risks from keeping it so cold that it will freeze during a cold night. We see it stated that potatoes will be injured for seed if kept colder than about forty degrees. Well, I know just what I am writing about, as I have kept hundreds and hundreds of bushels below thirty-five degrees for months at a time, and they grew perfectly.

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The barrels with seed in them should be set up off the bottom of the cellar a few inches, on strips, so cold air can pass under them. Use tight barrels and cover from the air all you can. The tubers should be entirely dry and cool when put away. I would not move them till ready to plant. I have tried handling and shoveling over to prevent sprouting, on hundreds of bushels. I would not do it again. It injures the sprout and often causes it to throw out side shoots. If they do sprout let them alone till ready to plant; then break the sprouts off and close down and let new ones grow.

Burying Seed.

For several years, I have, I know, kept my seed better by burying it. This for Northern Ohio. It would not be so practical 300 miles south. It may not be needed 300 miles north. The trouble here is during the last month or so before planting time. We cannot always keep early potatoes cold enough to keep sprouts back. A cold storage building would be the perfect place for keeping them, where ice could be used in the fall and spring.

As we dig early to put in wheat, we put potatoes on the bottom of a cool deep cellar first, as it is cooler there than they would be if buried at that time. When the earth gets cooler than the cellar, early in November, we select a dry place to bury, where no water will stand. Better if it is on the north side of buildings, or hedge or trees, so it will not thaw so

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readily when the south wind blows. We draw out on a cold morning, when cloudy and near freezing. The ground is then cold, and we can cool off the potatoes. I should like to have a cold wind blowing. We put them in a long narrow pile. Pile right on top of the ground, not in a trench. Then we put over a good layer of forkfulls of straw, laying across the base first, and then above, and lapping over, and finally "topping out" with a layer of forkfulls. Then we put about four inches of earth over the straw. When this earth (four inches) is frozen partly, and before there is any risk of a heavy frost, we put on another layer of straw, in the same way as the first, and then some ten or twelve inches of earth. Care is taken not to cover any more than enough at the base, so as to make the pile steep enough to shed water well. We top out well with earth; pat down the sides smoothly with shovel, and then don't think any thing more about it till a cold day, say in the latter part of February, when the pile is bare of snow and the ground frozen solid (clean off snow and let it freeze if necessary); then draw out a big lot of straw, or clover haulm is better, if you have it, and cover the pile all over and four feet out all around, deeply, two feet at least. This will keep the frost in. Sun and wind cannot get at it. Rains will wet the straw, and then dry out before another storm. You see the point — get the potatoes cold as soon as possible, and keep them so. Mulching will keep frost

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in till into April. No ventilation whatever is given the pile.

Notice the two dead-air spaces made by using two layers of straw and two of earth. This makes the protection from cold and from changes of temperature much greater.

After putting on the first covering of earth you can spread some chaff around the base of the pile to prevent the earth that you want to use for another covering from freezing; otherwise, some cold day when you must finish covering to protect the potatoes you might find hard shoveling.

This selection and care of seed is a good deal of trouble, but the time seems to be passed when we can raise a large and paying crop of potatoes, or anything else, without trouble.

Why all this great care to keep our seed potatoes from sprouting? Well, the first sprout that starts from the eye of the potatoes is the strongest and thriftiest one. If it is allowed to grow in a warm cellar and is broken off at planting time, the eye will usually throw out two or more sprouts the second time, smaller and weaker, and the result, particularly under unfavorable conditions of the soil and season, will be too many stalks in a hill, and weaker vines and smaller tubers. If the seed is sprouted twice, the third sprouts which start will still be more numerous and more feeble.

Of course, you always remember that very favorable conditions of soil and season may over-balance

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poor seed. A man may even plant small potatoes, that have sprouted badly, in a very rich garden soil, and, with favorable weather and good care, gather a bountiful harvest. On the average he has done very well.

Years ago, one warm winter, we were unable to keep our potatoes for seed in the cellar from sprouting considerably. They were early potatoes. I well knew the risk of planting such seed, and early in the spring I sent to the north-east and got seed that would not sprout before we could get it here and in the ground. But I did not send for enough. It was quite an expense. The season might be so favorable that it would make very little difference. Well, when we planted the last six-acre field our imported seed ran out in about the middle, so half was planted with our sprouted seed. The season was dry instead of favorable. All summer it was easy to see where we had made a mistake. In the fall we had about an even hundred dollars less from the three acres where our sprouted seed was used. I may tell you another thing right here that may help you sometime. Mr. —— sent me the ten barrels of seed about April 1st. If I put them in my cellar they would sprout before we could plant. Looking out ahead, I covered the freezing cold earth, a square rod of it, with straw some three feet deep, in March. When the potatoes came, we moved the straw, placed the barrels on the ice-cold ground, and covered deeply with straw again. I have since opened them on a cold morning and

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found the temperature of the potatoes to be thirty-six degrees, and no advance in sprouting. "Where there is a will there is a way."

Prevention of Scab.

Suppose, now, you have selected fine tubers for seed, and have kept them perfectly, so that not an eye has started to sprout. There may be here and there spots of what are called scabs on them. This is very common now. You may have some new and costly variety that have scab on them, and still you want to use them for seed. What you want to know is, will these potatoes do as well for seed, or does that law of "like begets like" hold good in planting scabby potatoes? It does according to our best present knowledge. I feel quite certain that Prof. H. L. Bolley, of the North Dakota experiment station, is correct in his conclusions, that the first cause of scab is plant organism of very minute character, which attacks the surface of the young growing tubers, eroding, irritating and blackening the adjacent tissues — a sort of "bacteroid fungus-like affair." It would seem certain, because pure masses of the scab plant, grown on nutrient gelatin, free from all other germs, when transferred to the surface of healthy growing potato tubers, will invariably produce the disease at the point of application.

Knowing this much, you will readily see that scabby seed will, under ordinary circumstances, pro-

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duce a scabby crop. Again, another thing has been learned: The disease will remain in soil where once it has been. How long, we do not know. That it will stay, already for business, three years, I know. The fungus, as we call it, lives along, waiting for more potatoes to work upon. Sometimes these germs in the soil do not come from raising potatoes directly. They certainly originate in some other way. The tendency will be toward getting them in the soil by continuous growing of the crop on the same land. There is less danger of all such troubles where regular rotation is practiced. Two years ago we plowed up land where we had grubbed out an old orchard. It certainly had no potatoes on it for forty years. But on part of the land they were horribly scabby. Some cow might have been fed parings of scabby potatoes and left her manure in these places. I simply give you this as a hint of how much trouble we may be put to in the future by this fungus. By feeding potatoes to our stock we may fill the manure with the germs, and then scatter it over our land. As stated in another chapter, fresh manure is more likely to cause a scab than old rotten manure. I have a strong impression that horse manure is worse than cow manure. But on most of these points we are yet in the dark. We have no certain known way yet of destroying germs that are in the soil.

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Killing Germs on Scabby Potatoes.

I will now tell you what I know about this. We first picked out three good tight flour barrels, and soaked them up till they failed to absorb any more water. I went to a druggist and bought seven packages of corrosive sublimate (*mercuric bichlorid*), two ounces in each package. This he pulverized. Next I bought three wooden-pulp pails. Crocks would do, but no metallic vessels should be used. I put two gallons of hot water in each pail, and a two-ounce paper of the sublimate in each. This I stirred with great care until dissolved. Then we put thirteen gallons of water in each of the three barrels, and emptied into each one a part of the sublimate solution. This was allowed to stand in the barrels about four hours, being thoroughly stirred often. Meanwhile we got out the potatoes, putting a bushel at a time in a wash-tub, and washing them off with our hands through two waters, to get off the earth and clean out scab-holes as much as possible, so poison would be sure to reach all points. Having the potatoes washed clean, enough to fill three barrels, we put them in the solution and let them stay one hour and thirty minutes. At the end of the ninety minutes we poured out the poisoned water. We then emptied out the potatoes, put in fresh ones again, and poured the water back in from the tub, and so on with other barrels. We used the same water but three times, but we see no reason why it

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could not be used until worn out. It would be poison as long as any remained.

There is no danger from the poison if you do not get it in your mouth. This is the same strength of solution that is used in surgery, one part to a thousand of water. If you should cut yourself when cutting poisoned potatoes, it would help the cut to heal, instead of doing it harm.

When the tubers had been treated, what were we to do with them? We could not safely put them into anything that had had potatoes in before, you see, because the germs are microscopic, and we might get some back on. We actually had to get some sheets and blankets from the house. Then we cut the seed right there, after scalding the knives and pans we used, and put the cut seed into some new grain bags that had never been used before, as the only perfectly safe thing we had. For dropping by hand we used the poisoned pails. Some of the best of the seed, washed but not treated, gave us a product about as bad as the seed. Always treat seed before cutting.

Cutting Seed.

Shall we cut it or shall we plant it whole? Shall we cut in halves, quarters, two-eye pieces or one eye? If you have poor land and rather poorly prepared and small seed that has sprouted, you would be right, perhaps, in planting whole potatoes. If you are two or three steps higher up, and have pretty

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fair soil and seed, and tend to the crop moderately well, a quarter of a potato, or possibly two or three eyes on a piece, may about suit you. You may find it as well to use more seed. Or, perhaps, the whole potatoes, if not too near together, and if you do not grow for market, may still give you more bushels, big and little. But if you have rich land and good seed, and make a business of growing them, and tend to it, too, with most varieties one-eyed pieces, the proper distance apart, may make you the most money.

There are not many men, probably, who have cut potatoes to one eye as long as has the writer.

My first experience was with the early Goodrich, I think; then, soon after, with the early Rose. The seed cost a high price, and we cut it very fine, and gave the best of care. Toward the last, however, as the seed more than held out to plant the piece we had prepared, we planted one row with quarters, one with halves, one with whole tubers, but not very large. Now, of course, the last row made the best show at first, and the one-eye rows the poorest. Every one who looked at the piece, myself among the rest, judged the yield would be according to the growth early in the season. Well, at digging time didn't we have some beauties where the one-eyed seed was used? I picked out some that weighed two pounds each. The more seed the smaller they were; and the yield from one-eye seed gave twenty-five per cent. more merchantable tubers than the average of the other rows.

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From what I have written, you will gather one advantage of this way of cutting, this light seeding. If the seed has not sprouted, a few tubers in a hill; and nearly all of them, if not planted too close together, grow to quite a uniform size. There are almost no little ones. Some years we have not picked them up at all, there were so few. If large potatoes are worth one dollar a bushel, or even seventy-five cents, we pick up small ones, as they will then sell for enough to pay us. They are worth some seven or eight cents a bushel to rot on the land as a fertilizer. I should not like to hire men to pick them up to sell at fifteen or twenty cents. They are not often worth that to us to feed out.

With this fine cutting there is quite a saving of seed to start with. This will be of little account to a farmer growing only enough for his own use; but to a large grower it is worth looking after. The amount varies some with varieties, as some have more eyes than others, and the size of the tubers make a difference; but say seven bushels of average seed will plant an acre in drills.

Another valuable point in favor of light seeding in drills. Scattered along the drills, a few in a place, they do not grow out of the ground as much, or crack it open as much. They must be kept down in the earth, for highest quality, some distance from daylight. This way of seeding gives the best chance for this, and for nearly level culture, which is also usually best.

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When a plant comes up from these one-eye pieces, of course at first it is smaller and weaker than where large seed is used; but if it came from good seed, and is well cared for, it will make use of all the available fertility there is in the soil, and turn it into good even-sized tubers. What more can you ask for? I have hinted that the soil must be fine where little pieces of seed are used. If it is fine, it will in the spring nearly always be moist; then the little pieces will be safe — just as safe as whole tubers, if the soil is well enough drained, and light enough so they will not rot.

It is always safest to plant cut seed as soon as it is cut. I should prefer it to go into the ground without drying. I never dry by rolling in land plaster. There is no gain on my land. I have known serious failures from cutting large quantities beforehand. If we cut a few hours ahead, we put the pieces in bushel baskets (they are cool, of course, being brought from the cellar or pile), and cover and set in a cool place. Keep from all wind and sun.

It is sometimes said that all the eyes will not grow on some varieties of potatoes. I have never found any kind where they would not, if properly cut.

It does not make any great difference how you cut when one-eye pieces are wanted, only so that you have about an equal quantity of pulp in each one, and the pieces are rather chuncked and not too thin. The most simple way seems to be to take the tuber in your left hand, with the stem end down. Then,

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with a very thin-bladed knife in your other hand, you are ready to begin.

Now let me say right here, that we have no iron-clad rule that every piece shall only have one eye on. Our rule is, that pieces shall be of a good fair size. Nearly always, with good-sized seed, one eye pieces will be enough. In a case where a piece would be pretty small with but one eye on I would cut two. Practically we seldom do this. The knives we use are cheap and good, with the handle extending on to the back a little to protect the fingers. Grind them down, before beginning to cut, as thin as you dare. They will then go through the potato much easier. The back should not be much thicker than the edge. We always wind a rag around the forefinger to protect it. With such a knife, one who is used to it should cut from eight to ten bushels to one eye in a day of ten hours and do it nicely. Of course it will go slowly at first. A woman will usually cut faster and better than a man. They are more used to such work and have more patience. I have seen a young lady cut a bushel an hour right along, where the seed was of good size.

If you want to cut small potatoes, Mr. L. D. Olds of Wisconsin, who is pretty good authority, cuts off and throws away the seed end, as I do, and splits the tuber lengthwise into two or three pieces, according to size. I have cut them to one eye, but would not advise it for field culture. The pieces are too small.

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CULTIVATION.

We will suppose you have the best variety for your soil and circumstances, and the best of seed, properly cut, and planted on suitable land, all well drained, and fitted in the very best way. You have done rightly so far, but you must not stop giving the crop your most thoughtful attention daily, right along, for two months or more yet. After that you may take it easy for awhile, and leave the rest to Providence. But don't you trust in Providence the slightest degree during these two months, until you have done all you can yourself. Then go to bed at night and don't worry a particle, but sleep soundly, in the full assurance that your kind Father will give you your reward in proportion to the efforts put forth. Nature wants to help you, but she has her fixed laws, which she will not change one iota. She has given us brains to study out such matters; we use them or take the consequences. Providence will never keep weeds from drinking up the moisture, or eating the plant-food. She will never keep the surface of the soil stirred for you, although she has arranged so that, if you do these things yourself, in the best way, and on time, your reward shall be great.

HOW WE CARE FOR THE CROP.

If the planter was used to put in the crop, the drills all show plainly, so one can cultivate as well before the potatoes come up as after; in fact, better. Go-

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ing over the land so much with horses and planter has packed it pretty solidly between the rows, and so we can cultivate deeply and thoroughly the first thing — tear up the soil just all we can. Within a week or so after planting, we harrow the field lengthwise with the Thomas smoothing harrow, using two horses and taking three rows at once, and keeping horses between rows. That is, we harrow the drill between horses, and one each side. Within four or five days, say, we harrow lengthwise again; and then, after about as many more days, crosswise. It is well to drive fast, as the harrow then levels the ridges better. These three harrowings should make the surface entirely level and fine. I would not ridge up much when planting with a planter. You must get the ridges, whether high or low, leveled down before the potato sprouts get up. Look out for this. It will do to put earth over a sprout, but it will not do to harrow it away from a sprout and leave it up in the air two or three inches higher than it ought to have grown before the leaves come out. One must be on the watch to do this harrowing at just the right time. Once in a great while he can not manage this any, even on drained land. If a shower is likely to come in a few hours, and you harrowed only three days before, perhaps, it may be best to harrow again; for, before the earth dries after the rain, the weeds may get out to daylight. The rain may continue some days. You must not take any risk, but always strive to keep the upper hand.

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I like to have the last harrowing done just before the plants come out in sight. Here and there one may be out, but I should like the great mass of them to come up after I had done the last harrowing.

Years ago we used the Thomas also, after the potatoes came up. Now we have a better, lighter tool for this purpose, Breed's weeder. As soon as the rows show plainly, we use this implement with one horse that walks between the rows, drawing the weeder, which, in clean mellow soil, harrows the surface lightly between the rows and in the drills or hills, two rows at a time. If the soil is packed by rain, we cultivate first and follow with the weeder. The weeder is a very light harrow. It will not take hold of hard ground much. If we cultivate first, it can, of course, take hold better of the little that is left. For this early cultivation, when plants are small, we use the Iron Age cultivator with its fourteen little light teeth. You can go fast, and throw no earth. It is important that the weeder be used when the earth is just dry enough after a shower; and not too dry. There will be, perhaps, half a day when it will do its best; then the earth gets too dry. What shall you do after that? Why, as we do — have enough of weeders to go over your field on time. We have two and can stir the surface of our field in less than five hours, if necessary.

If it is cloudy and not drying very fast, we have done this way: My son and man cultivate each with his horse and one-horse cultivator, and I follow with

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the weeder. As they take a row at a time, each of them, and I two at once, you see I just keep up with them, and we can go over a dozen acres in a day, and cultivate them and hoe them most perfectly. We continue to use the weeder until the tops are quite large. When it pushes them over so as to do real injury, one or two teeth can be taken out over the rows, but we have not done this. We can use it about as long as it is needed, without. When the tops shade the earth under them where it cannot be stirred with the cultivator, the weeder is no longer needed.

You will notice that we use the cultivators in connection with the weeders, even if the latter, on fine soil, might do alone. One can hardly overdo this matter of tillage, and there is a great deal in having the surface fine, as well as freshly stirred. Don't you forget this.

You may tear it up roughly on half a field with cultivators having large wide teeth, and I will use these implements on the other half, that just rake the surface, leaving it fine and level, and some years, at least, I will leave you way behind. After we stop the use of the weeder we continue the cultivation, narrowing up the cultivator as the tubers begin to grow. I like the Planet, Jr., with the one and one-fourth steels, for this purpose.

For simply stirring the surface after potatoes are well started, I take five teeth off, and put on five teeth that are only one and one-fourth inches wide.

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You can buy these narrow teeth as extras, and you should not think of doing without them.

About the time the tubers are beginning to form, or just before the potato-vines begin to lop over, we have found it best to use the planet once, with side shovels on, throwing a little earth in under the plants, for reasons given in a former chapter. For this purpose, we go twice in a row. All other cultivation is done once in a row. The rows are so straight that we do almost perfect work on each side at once. Now, a very important point: The first cultivation after the plants break ground should be deep — as deep and thorough as is possible with a strong horse; then give them the soil to grow in, and let all after cultivation, without any exception, be shallow. About one and one-half inches deep is all I allow. I consider that the time when cultivation is done is important.

We aim to never let a crust form after a shower, but get on and stir the surface just as soon as a horse will not do injury to the soil by packing. We must be careful and not start too soon, and be ready to rush things just the moment the conditions are right. If it rains again in twenty-four hours, no matter; we cultivate again as soon as it is dry enough. If it is dry weather, and does not rain at all, we cultivate again in a week, anyway, as the earth settles together and needs it by that time. No attention whatever, is paid to the number of times we cultivate; we just do all we can for the crop.

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As long as any soil is exposed to the sun, it is better to keep the surface lightly stirred. When the vines cover over all, then shade will take the place of cultivation.

I have not said anything about hoeing by hand. We do not do any, except in extremely wet seasons, or at the ends of the rows where the tools do not do good work. We keep our crop pretty clean, and have for many years, by working in the line given above.

What Do We Cultivate For?

To keep weeds down, and the surface mellow and fine, so as to let air in and check evaporation from below. These are the main reasons. Have you ever stopped to think how much damage weeds do? There is no question on these points; they eat up plant food and deprive your potatoes of it just as certainly as a rat eating some of the oats fed your horse cheats the horse out of some of his food. If you let them grow they will eat, and you pay the full bill in potatoes. Prof. Hunt told us at an institute this winter that weeds which would weigh one pound (dry weight) had evaporated from the soil 300 pounds of water. Think of this when you let weeds grow, particularly in a dry year. Potatoes need abundant moisture; weeds rob them of it.

After a shower the surface of our field dries off; and if the soil is in the least heavy a crust forms.

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This is hard and quite impervious to air, and the evaporation from this unbroken surface is great. There is not rain enough usually during the season to supply a crop of potatoes with all the moisture they need. There is, however much moisture accumulated in the subsoil below. This works up toward the surface by what we call capillary attraction, the same way that oil rises in your lamp wick. In this way a crop may get considerable moisture over and above what comes directly from the clouds during the growing season. There is a limit, of course, to this supply, and we may save it from waste, not only by keeping the weeds down, but by having the surface lightly stirred. This loose broken surface acts as a mulch, just as effectually as if you had put some straw on the top of the ground. The water works up through the firmer soil below and supplies your crop, but it is prevented from reaching the surface, to any extent, where the sun and wind would drink it up but for your mulch of loose earth. On a good soil a man who is as saving as possible, in this line, may get a fair return, even without any rain at all. It is simply wonderful what man can do. But he must do it. Nature will never do it for him. God furnishes the rain and the brains. You are a free agent to use one or both or neither, as much or as little as you choose. Do you see now why we are so anxious to stir the surface after a shower? Why we harrow the field as soon as it is plowed? Why we have the surface covered with second crop clover all winter before

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plowing (one reason) all in this same direction of saving moisture?

It is true that stirring the surface causes the soil actually stirred (say an inch or two deep) to dry all the faster; then this dry loose surface prevents the waste, for the most part of the large quantity of the moisture below. And do not forget that air in the soil is necessary to the growth of plant. You give it a good chance to enter when the surface is loose, instead of dried and baked. During a wet time cultivation is not needed on a well-drained soil except to keep weeds down. When showers come daily, tillage may stop; but be sure to stir the surface right after the last one. Better do the work for nothing five times than miss having done it at this important time. It would be easy to grow potatoes if we knew beforehand what the season and weather would be.

I have said that all cultivation, after the first time through, is shallow — only about one and one-fourth inches deep. Now, I want you to know that I am about, and tending to this matter. I know that no careless man is "riding" the cultivator and sinking the teeth three or four inches. I will have no boy work in this line, but a good man, and he is plainly told that he might ten times better be sitting in the shade than running a cultivator deep in my field. Roots pass all through the soil searching for food. The soil was made for them to grow in. The more they can have the better. But practically they can

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get along without one and one-half inches of the surface pretty well, and we must have about that much to move and keep down the weeds, and check evaporation. We do not need more, and it is senseless waste to take it. Deep cultivation diminishes the feeding ground, or destroys masses of fibrous roots and puts the plant to the expense of growing over again. I prefer to have my vines growing tubers, without having to stop to repair damages. This matter of damages, however, will be governed by the weather that follows the tearing off of the roots. If it is hot and dry it will do more damage than if wet and showery.

Bugs and Blight.

Where the Colorado beetles and their larvæ are troublesome most growers spray the vines with a mixture of Paris green or London purple and water. Some few use the poison dry, mixed with land plaster. Now, so far as I am concerned, I should prefer to drop this matter right here. Our land is right around the house, our home. I did not feel quite easy about having the wind blowing over a dozen acres of poisoned tops and then right through our grounds. I felt as though if too much Paris green would kill potatoes, a little would injure them. A careless man killed two acres dead one afternoon. Again, I must put the poison on myself or be with the man who is doing it.

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All these things together led me to experiment a little with hand-picking, and we found that by going at it systematically and on time, we could actually prevent all damage from these pests at less expense than we were at while using poison. Exact figures were kept, so I knew this. Then I was released, for cheap hands could pick bugs, and no injury was done to the vines. The larvæ did not have to eat the vines to get the poison and die, Let me give you an example or two of how I have been "sat down on" in regard to this point. At the "round top" institute, in Washington, on "potato day," I was called for my experience. I touched this matter very lightly, and spoke of the injury that I thought was done the vines by using poison. Mr. Smith had just been telling of his big crop of some 1700 bushels on four acres. Instantly some sharp friend called out: "Mr, Smith, did you use poison on that big crop of yours?" "Yes, sir." "All right, that is all I want to know. That was a good enough crop for me, injury or no injury."

Our plan has been to pick the beetles just as soon as the plants break ground, and keep at it persistently for a time, thus preventing the laying of many eggs. In this way we have had but little trouble with the larvæ. We have picked the beetles in quart glass fruit jars. They cannot crawl out of these handily. For gathering any larvæ that may hatch, we use a pan with a handle attached, so we do not need to stoop. The pan is carried in the left hand,

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and a long paddle, made of a barrel stave (which is just the right length), is used in the right hand to gather the larvæ in from a row on each side. We have a tin pail, holding six gallons or more, with a tight cover at the end of the field. Into this we empty beetles or larvæ. A dose of boiling water at night fits them for the fertilizer pile.

Strong-growing varieties, fertile soil, potatoes always on fresh land (rotation), all these things tell. Bugs eat the weak little plants first. You have seen it. Nature is down on the underling, "survival of the fittest;" "unto him that hath shall be given." Do you say those cattle are not doing well because they are lousy? You are twisted. They are lousy because they are not doing well. Care for them better. Care for your potatoes better. Some authority has recently declared that yellows in peach trees was caused by lack of fertility. Bugs would do preciously little harm here to an acre of potatoes fed so that they would grow into a solid mass of vines in six or seven weeks after coming up, even if not one was picked off.

We observe the habits of the beetle. They fly only on a warm day, and come from where they were the year before to the new field. We watch the outside on such days. They always alight near the edge. Three or four times a day we run over the rows.

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The Blight.

Within the last few years it has been found by our experiment station that spraying with what is called the Bordeaux mixture will prevent injury from blight, more or less. Prof. Goff says this blight is not the same disease that causes rot at all. It is simply a blight or rust that attacks the foliage and causes it to die before its time. Unless one noticed carefully, he would think the potatoes had ripened, perhaps. Our early potatoes may die in seventy-five or one hundred days from planting. When they grow the full time the crop is much improved; ten or twenty days cut off at the last end diminishes the yield decidedly. We do not, however, have weather suitable for this trouble to thrive in until near the end of the season, for early-planted early potatoes. From what we know now, if I grew late potatoes I would spray them every time. It is a question whether it would pay on our early ones. I asked Prof. Green, of our station, last year, what he thought about it, and he doubted whether it would pay me to spray. If I can keep my potatoes green a week longer, I believe that it will pay. Prof. Goff gave us the figures at the "Potato Institute" on the cost. He thought five dollars per acre would cover it. About half for material, and half for labor. Spray three or four times, beginning when plants are about six inches high, and spraying once in two weeks, or oftener if it rains very hard. Prof. Goff says the Bordeaux mixture of itself

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will help about keeping bugs off, and you know Paris green can be put in at the same time, if you wish. It seems to me that the coating of leaves with the mixture would be injurious to the vines, somewhat; but, perhaps, it is better than to risk their dying from disease.

Did you ever hear how the value of this mixture was discovered? It was not studied out, but hit on by accident, as is often the case. Of course, the mixture is named after the city of Bordeaux, in France, where it was discovered. As I remember, some one was troubled by school children eating his grapes as they passed along. So he got some white-wash (lime) and put in some sulphate of copper and sprinkled it on the vines to protect them from the children. But he had done far more than he had arranged for. It turned out that the grapes on the sprayed vines failed to rot, as they did elsewhere, and experiments soon showed that an important discovery had been made. My pencil tells me to get a knapsack sprayer, and I think I shall. They cost only one-fourth or one-third as much as the cart's. Of course, one cannot get over the field nearly as fast, but there is more than this to think of. On a large farm, with 100 acres of potatoes and head-lands to turn on, I would get a cart, as well, perhaps, as a sulky cultivator. In our little fields the damage from the horse and cart turning right on the vines at each end while spraying the field, and some four times during the season, from the time the tops are six

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inches high until they are full grown, would more than pay all the cost of getting the mixture put on by hand. This is the way I figure. In my lot, the turning on vines would decrease the yield on six rods, at ends, about one-half. That is, we should lose about three rods per acre. A man can spray four acres a day with a knapsack.

We must begin spraying while the potatoes are small. It will not do to wait till the disease appears. There are more or less germs in the air at all times. These lodge on the leaves and get a foothold. When they once do this you cannot do any good spraying. The spraying is to coat the leaves with a mixture that will prevent the germs from taking root. Hence, you must begin when the plants are about six inches high, and then, in ten or fifteen days, spray again to coat any new leaves that have grown out, and so on until growth practically ceases.

The Use of Bushel Boxes.

For several years we used these for marketing early potatoes in the city, as long as the skins slipped at all, and it saved us much work and made us some money.

First take a look at the box. The first ones made were thirteen inches by sixteen by thirteen, all inside measurements. The sides and bottoms were made of three-eighth stuff and ends of five-eighth. Hand-holes were cut in the ends. The upper corners were

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bound with galvanized hoop-iron, to make them strong. Getting only a few, so, the price I paid at the box factory was $25 to $30 a hundred.

Now when digging for early market my men just laid the tubers in these boxes as they would eggs (no throwing in), and as fast as one was filled a cover was put on. These covers are simply pieces of inch thick boards, cut about fifteen by eighteen inches. Potatoes that were dug one day I took to market the next morning on a spring wagon, of course, with a canvas cover over them to protect them from the sun as well as from the rain. They were set off at the grocer's and then put by him into the delivery wagon and taken to his customers. They thus reached the consumer about as fresh and nice as if he had dug them out of his own garden. The boxes hold a bushel level full, so they can be set one on top of the other. Do not round them up or you will cheat yourself. They hold a full bushel when a straight edge drawn across the top just touches the potatoes.

With plenty of these boxes my men dug right along while I was at market, and fifteen minutes was time enough to load my wagon in after I got back. There is some dead weight to carry, but it pays twice over.

Later in the season, after the potatoes are ripe, and there is no longer need of handling them carefully, I drive through the field, and two men will empty fifty or sixty boxes into my wagon in a very few minutes,

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and the boxes are left to be filled again; this for drawing to market. If drawing to cellar or barn or pile, for storage, we would set the boxes right in the wagon, and after emptying them, put them back in and return to the field, and scatter them along as we drive down toward the back end, and then turn around and two men will put filled boxes in as fast as I can possibly set them up, and in a very few minutes another load is on. For field work I consider boxes far better than sacks, although some use the latter. They will wear out fast. Our boxes have been used some fifteen years and are not used up yet. But when it comes to loading a car from cellar or barn I prefer the sacks. We shovel a bushel, as nearly as we can (where a load is to be weighed), into a two-bushel sack, give the top a twist, and toss them into the wagon. It would surprise you, perhaps, to see how quickly two men will toss 100 bushels into our wagon, while we load them in our barn, and how quickly I put them into the car while they empty them. One man can fill sacks for two more loads while we are gone. This is the best way I have found to load potatoes on to a car. Perhaps I may as well say right here, before I forget it, that you want nice wooden shovels for handling the crop, if they are put into the wagon in a bulk, or for taking them out of the cellar.

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Digging. When Shall We Dig?

If you are selling in market, dig as soon as your potatoes are large enough to satisfy buyers; that is, if the price suits you, and generally you will not do better by waiting, I have often heard farmers say they dug a piece early and sold them. If they had only left them till they were ripe there would have been a much larger yield. They also hesitated about selling potatoes at a good price, because they would grow so much more if left that it would more than make up for any decline in prices. Usually this is a mistake. My potatoes have turned out the most bushels when dug just before they were fully ripe. They are plump and heavy. And when they ripen they do shrink some. I believe that the heaviest shrinkage in weight of potatoes takes place within a month, about ripening time, and it does not make very much difference whether they are in the soil, pile or cellar. Shrink they will, and after that time, if properly stored at a low temperature, the shrinkage is not so very great. But now, suppose you do want to sell by the load in early market. You want to store the potatoes, or load on cars in bulk and ship. In this case, we in this latitude always dig as soon as the potatoes are entirely ripe. This is when the vines are all dead, and the tubers separate readily from the roots. We do this even if it is in August; and if we do not want to ship we store them till we do. There is nothing gained by leaving them in the earth longer,

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and there may be loss. I don't know about the scab increasing after the potato is ripe, but I do know that wire-worms, white grubs, etc., continue to put in their work. If they are numerous they almost ruin an early crop if left in till fall. Again, after the vines die down, the sun may find its way into the cracks, and the light injure the tubers some. They are certainly better off and safer in a cool cellar, protected entirely from the light, than in the hot earth during August and September. There may be this single exception: If the potatoes are rotting it is better to leave them in the ground until the trouble is over. If you dig and pile them while rotting badly, you will get diseased tubers in with the sound, or the disease in the sound ones will be hastened on by piling, and you may have no end of trouble in picking them over, and, perhaps, lose about all. We have not had much experience with rot. One year we lost perhaps 1,000 bushels in this way, in August. As soon as it came I stopped digging and selling, as it was almost impossible to tell sound from unsound tubers. About the first of September, the diseased ones were all soft, the trouble seemed to have stopped spreading, and we went on digging, selling and storing. Whenever the season is such that our richest land produces 300 bushels per acre, or more, we are apt to find traces of rot. With a big crop, on over-rich soil, I should want to dig as early as possible, and sell for immediate eating. A young man wrote me the other day about a very rich, heavy-manured piece of land, asking what

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variety he had better put on. He said old men all told him his crop would rot down. I told him his best chance was to plant Early Ohio, early, and digging them the moment they would go to market and rushing them right off.

How Shall We Dig?

This depends on how many you have to dig, and the conditions. If a small grower myself, I would dig by hand with the four-tined fork. An expert can dig an acre in ten hours, where the crop has been kept clean and the soil is mellow. A young man who once worked for me some five years, dug my crop in 1893, at a cost to me of just about one cent a bushel. His best day's work in nine hours, taking rows right through the field as they came, was 223 bushels. It took two good men to pick up after him and pile the potatoes, as we did then. Of course, the ground was clean and mellow, and the yield large, nearly 400 bushels per acre, where he did his best day's work, and the man was a real expert. He dug nearly all of my twenty-four acres alone, getting done about the middle of October, besides helping some at other work.

I wonder if I can tell you how to use the fork so as to help you. Set it into the ground just back far enough to never "stick" the tubers, and just deep enough not to miss any, and then, with a quick, curved and backward flirt, scatter the earth and leave all tubers in sight. The ground should be mellow,

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so this can be done without putting the foot upon the fork. With one-eye seed, in drills, my boss digger would walk right along and nearly always throw out a hill clean with a single motion. He had excellent judgment, skill and great strength. It was very seldom that he "stuck" a tuber, and it seemed to hurt him when he did, and he would not leave a bushel in the ground on ten acres. I consider the fork as far ahead of the hook or any other implement, for hand-digging, and with good help I would to-day take it in preference to any cheap digger I have used.

A Successful Digger.

This is the Hoover. It is somewhat complicated and costly, and it takes power to draw it. I can use it, and never break down, because I see to it that everything is right, and tight and well oiled. Two strong horses might draw this digger on light soil; in fact, I have thus drawn it; but to go right along on heavier soil, or when dry, and to let it down so as to get under all tubers and not cut any, one wants three or four horses. I use four — one team ahead of the other, so we can take off the front team and use them on the wagon to draw in a load and bring out more boxes from time to time, leaving the other team with the digger.

Now, just what will this digger do? On my land, except on two or three little hill-sides, it will go right along, unless it is too wet, and take every potato out

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of the earth, shake all earth off, and leave the tubers in a nice narrow row on top, where they can be picked up faster than after the best hand digging. Now, this is for the varieties we grow that do not spread much in the soil. The machine would not dig the old Peachblow clean.

On level or moderately rolling land that is clean, free from stones, and fairly mellow, I could do a job that would do your eyes good — well, you may almost call it a perfect job, and still, once in a while I cut or bruise a tuber, but not nearly as many as I would by digging with a fork. You may call the work practically perfect. Of course, the machine has no business in a field full of large or fixed stones.

Rotation and Clover.

A rotation of crops is needed. We cannot to advantage grow potatoes right along year after year on the same ground. The ground gets tired of growing one crop only. The ingredients used by it become exhausted, or some of them do, and then enemies to the crop increase greatly when it is grown continuous without change. A short rotation, where each crop occupies the ground a single year, helps greatly about warding off damage by all the various pests. They hardly have a chance to get a foot-hold before their feeding-ground is torn up and, perhaps, a crop put in they do not like. Such troubles as the scab and blight are doubtless made worse by growing crop af-

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ter crop on the same soil But a great advantage that comes to us from rotation is a chance to bring in what is called a renovating crop once in from three to five years. A renovating crop is one that gathers up fertility and leaves the soil richer than it was before, in available fertility. Clover is our most practical plant for this purpose in this locality, and over a large portion of the country.

In traveling thousands of miles both east and west, month after month, I could not help noticing that most fields are seeded with timothy and comparatively few with clover. Well, it is a change and rest to seed down with timothy. It is rotation, but not renovation in the slightest degree. Timothy feeds on the soil exactly as wheat, corn and potatoes do, and leaves it just so much poorer. Timothy eats nitrogen, as the rural New Yorker lately put it, while clover gathers it.

Now clover in regular rotation, in the place of timothy, if you can on any soil where it is reasonably at home will do just this: It will give you about twice as many tons of hay per acre, if you want feed; it is worth about one-third more per ton to feed out and about one-third more as fertilizers. Or, if you take in to account the fact that there is twice as much of it, the clover is worth three times as much as a fertilizer per acre as the timothy, above ground without counting the roots. The roots are also worth far more than the timothy roots as a fertilizer. Now the question comes up that is all important.

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Where does the clover get this excess of fertility? If from the soil directly, as does the timothy, then we gain nothing in the end, as we are only running our land down faster. But at last it is known that this is not a fact. The clover has the ability to absorb through a peculiar growth on its roots, free nitrogen from the air. At market rates for the nitrogen, there is in the air resting on a square rod on your farm more than $97,000 worth. We need not worry about the supply given out you see.

Of course, clover can get no mineral matter from the air. It must get that from the earth as other crops do; but there is this difference, clover is a deep feeder. It sends its roots down far, and gathers up and brings to the surface. Perhaps it gets what naturally exists in the subsoil, but it also lays hold of what is constantly leaching down with the water of heavy rains, and what has got below the reach of more surface feeding plants. It gathers up escaping nitrates as well as mineral matter, and practically all comes to the surface again, where other crops can get it when you plow the sod under. Further, clover has done its best in the way of drawing from air and subsoil at the end of two season's growth (one with the grain it was sowed with). To make the most of it as a renovating crop, one needs to turn it under then, or in the spring following, and turn the fertility into money by putting in some suitable crop. Here is where many fail. They let the clover grow

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long and run out, and much of the work done by the clover is lost.

I might speak of the benefits that come from shading the ground by having it densely covered by clover practically all the time for two seasons. I cannot give it to you in dollars and cents, but it is working in accordance with nature's laws, that covered shaded land grows richer, and large profit will come from it.

A ton of timothy hay is worth as a fertilizer, on a base of market rates of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash $5.48; a ton of clover $8.20. This is from the highest authorities in the land. It is essentially correct, just as certainly as that two and two make four.

Now you may see why fertilizers show no results on my clover land. On an acre, the clover furnishes fertility equal to about one and a half tons of Mapes complete potatoe manure, costing (this year) $41 per ton, and I have got it without any loss of use of the land for a crop, and almost no cost, only care and attention.

There are many points I would like to speak about clover, that have been jumped over. Here is one: I said that timothy feeds in the soil directly, etc. Notice the timothy sod, or the red top, or blue-grass sod, or a wheat or rye sod, for that matter. If a heavy growth the soil is full of roots, enough to hold it together till you turn it over, and it takes an implement like a cutaway harrow to make a seed bed.

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Now notice the growth of clover roots. The tap root goes right down through the soil, taking only enough to support it till it gets down. Then it sends out its fibrous roots, far and deep to gather up fertility, which is stored in the large tap root, near the surface and in the top.

My Rotation.

After many changes I have settled on a three year rotation, of clover, potatoes, and wheat. This is the best I can study up for our circumstances. No stock is kept further than our family horse and cow. For several years we have kept no more stock than this, and grew only potatoes and wheat. We cut just what clover we want to feed out. As we feed horses in the barn most of the year, this takes considerable; about all the first crop of clover. The clover that grows after the wheat is removed is clipped and left to go back on the land, and feed the potatoes directly. Meanwhile it shades the ground and thus enriches it. We usually mow it twice, when it is from eight to twelve inches high.

The first crop next season is usually cut for hay, early. The crop we harrow down, with the Thomas harrow, when about knee high, just before it falls down, in lands, the way we plow in the spring. Thus it plows under easily, covers the surface more evenly, and it is prevented from ripening so quickly. It continues to grow much longer (more fertility gathered)

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as it tries to grow up again, and form seed, the object of its existence. I think I make it grow a month longer by this breaking flat down. It is best done when wet with dew. This clover is not plowed under till spring, you will notice; more shading and live roots in the soil to prevent waste, and no surface wash. No animals are allowed to pasture on the clover at any time during the rotation. We cannot afford to tramp the land.

Now, this is the way we have been farming for some time. What we have done has paid. We have had a good income and were not overworked. There has been enough to do during the eight months from April 1st to December 1st, and still not so much that we could not attend to our fruit garden and lawn, and flowers, and have a reasonable amount of time — yes, quite a little of it, for recreation. Myself and one good man could do most of this, if I should work as hard as I once did.

There is no better preparation for wheat than working the land all summer in potatoes, unless the fall is very dry. The potatoes draw largely upon the potash in the soil, and the wheat on the phosphoric acid; and thus between them they keep a fair balance.

This is a good rotation — one that I cannot improve on, perhaps, for our circumstances; and still there is just a possibility that I am growing clover too much. I see no trouble as yet, but you notice that clover is growing on the land two seasons out

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of three — one in the wheat. This is too much. A four-year rotation might be better; under some circumstances it would be.

Rotation For a Dairy Farm.

Potato growing and dairying will go fairly well together, under some circumstances — say where there is a father and grown son, one of whom can take charge of the dairying and the other of the crops. This will give a chance for an excellent four-year rotation. It would be this:

1. Clover manured for corn.
2. Corn for the silo, followed by rye.
3. Potatoes on the rye sod.
4. Wheat seed with clover and perhaps a little timothy.

In this case I would still use a little manure, what might be needed on the young clover, after taking off the wheat, as advised in chapter 2. This would be a perfectly safe rotation, and a good one. I would cut all clover for hay in this case. Clover hay cut early and good corn ensilage, makes a ration for cows that is almost perfect, needing only the addition of a little wheat bran and oilmeal or cotton seed meal. The rye would prevent waste of fertility from the corn stubble. The potatoes would have old fertility, which is so much better than fresh manure. Corn loves fresh manure. The wheat would give straw for bedding the cows. I would not advise, as

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a rule, the growing of any more crops than those named. If oats are wanted, better buy them, where wheat does well. (Of course, this rotation will not do for all localities.) Give all your attention to the cows and potatoes rather than undertake more.

I promised to tell you about getting rid of the ravages of the white grub, or how not to have them. This short rotation, one year in a crop, is a part of the plan. The rest is, to have such heavy crops of clover, so thick, and shading the ground so thoroughly, that the May beetle that lays the eggs will not be fool enough to deposit them in such a cool, damp place, where they would never hatch, but will fly away to some thinner sod somewhere else. She will lay some eggs in thin wheat, I find, or, perhaps, in good wheat, but not to any great extent. When we find a few grub-eaten potatoes, it is, as a rule, if not always, where there was a thinnish spot in the clover. A little more manure on such spots, where clover is young, is the best remedy.

Production and Profit.

Average crops, managed in average ways no longer pay any profit, nor will they ever again. Two things the successful farmer of the future must do: he must get larger returns per acre than the average, and he must reduce the cost of production. If you drain the wet places you will get more per acre. The clover rotation gives us cheaper and safer food and so reduces the cost of production. Cutting to one

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eye saves money (seed) and is managed so as to give as good results. With drill culture and long straight rows we cultivate at half the cost. Level culture saves plant-food and moisture, while shallow culture prevents injury to the roots, thus increasing the yield. Good sound unsprouted seed will show a great gain over sprouted seed. The boxes and wagons will enable us to make another gain in handling the crop, thus saving in expense.

Success will come, but it is faithful, persistent, long-continued, never-tiring, well-directed work that brings it.

T. B. Terry.

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EDITORS.

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PARLIAMENTARY LAW.

BY B. A. SMITH.

THE NECESSITY.

PARLIAMENTARY LAW is that system of procedure by which any organized assembly arrives at a definite conclusion. A little reflection will show at once that no collection of persons having assembled for some definite purpose, can obtain its perfect accomplishment without following some method of procedure.

This method may be some pre-arranged system, or it may be that procedure which, by frequent usage, has come to be generally understood. To attempt to transact the business of the assembly without such a plan either expressed or implied would be to defeat the purpose for which it came into existence. To avoid disorder and to proceed with a dignity worthy the object for which the assembly is created so that the decision finally obtained shall represent the best judgment of those who have thus been called together is the object of parliamentary law.

Every assembly of persons represents a variety of opinions. The character of the assembly does not

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change the question of the differences of opinion. The vast increase of newspapers, the great diffusion of knowledge by reason of cheap books and periodicals, the popular lecture courses throughout the country — the growing numbers of popular institutions of learning — all these have been factors in the spread of general information among the people. It has led to wider individual knowledge and a broader, sounder, stronger opinion upon matters of current moment. An assembly may, therefore, represent as many varying opinions as there are minds, notwithstanding the fact of its being called for some specific purpose. It may be that in such an assembly there are many who may agree touching the main and fundamental principles, but in the details of arrangement and of execution the opinions vary. By a comparison of opinions, by a discussion of the real merits of the proposition before the assembly, the divergence of opinions becomes lessened and the conclusion finally obtained represents in the main the opinion of the largest number composing the assembly.

That is to say, every assembly possesses at least two sides or parties — those who agree upon some line of action and those who disagree. One or the other is numerically the stronger. To preserve the will of the stronger and give it effect, and at the same time protect the rights of the weaker, is a very important function. Any system by which this may be accomplished has come to be known as Parliamentary Law.

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It may be broadly stated that we are a nation of popular assemblages. The town meeting, so common in the New England States, is an assembly of the vicinage. The increasing number of societies of a secret or social nature is silent testimony of this almost national characteristic.

In the early days of the nation, the practice was a perfect copy of that which obtained in the English Parliament; and necessarily so, when one remembers that before the separation from the mother country the English system was the only one that could be recognized as legal. The legislative bodies of the colonies were copies of the Parliament of England and must, therefore, perform their work in a similar manner. When, however, the separation took place and the nation became free and independent, the need of reform became apparent. Cumbrous methods of procedure were dropped for better and safer methods and thus our present system came to be developed and established.

The foundation of the system lies in precedents that because of usage have come to be regarded as having the authority of law. In many cases the system has reached its present stage by reason of the silent acquiescence of those interested. Whatever has obtained as a means of accomplishing a result is often regarded as equally valuable at any future time.

In general, it may be stated that for the purpose of guidance, the practice of the highest legislative body of any country or State is the one that is gen-

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erally accepted. Thus, when a political convention assembles it is customary for the convention to adopt that system which is in vogue in the State Legislature, the differences between the practice of any two States of the United States being merely one of arrangement rather than of principle.

Mr. Thomas Jefferson's manual is the first attempt to form the practice that obtained in his time into a definite code; and while much that he compiled and codified is yet retained, the disputed points of his system have become now settled and fixed rules.

There are still points of difference, and it is the purpose of this article to give only that which by usage and consent has become the generally accepted practice.

That any assembly may change its method of procedure and adopt any system which in the judgment of those interested shall the better represent the end to be achieved, is the well-known rule of parliamentary practice. This practice obtains in all the legislative bodies in this country where, by reason of existing conditions, the will of the majority is defeated. In such cases new rules are made and become a distinctive part of that special system which obtains in that body. Thus, the cloture rule of the English Parliament defeated the methods of those who would obstruct legislation in order to coerce the majority to do whatever a minority demanded.

These assemblies must be conducted with due regard to order and dignity. Nor is this less true in a

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business sense. Banks, railroad, insurance and industrial companies have their boards of directors, and they are required by law to transact their business with due regard to the requirements of what has come to be understood as parliamentary law.

Churches, eleemosynary institutions, societies of a philanthropic, educational and social character are conducted, so far as the practical business of these organizations is concerned, with due regard to some parliamentary procedure.

The highest type of these assemblages using a parliamentary practice is to be found in those which, composed of representatives of the people, have the power to make laws for the comfort, safety and perpetuity of the nation.

It will be seen, therefore, that this knowledge is no mean possession and, in fact, is to be regarded as a very necessary part of one's general information.

The Origin.

The origin of parliamentary law is to be found in that period of English history which marks the triumph of the people against the arbitrary power of the King. It is not a series of rules which have come into existence by one supreme act of a people. It is the outgrowth of many years of persistent effort. Since the days of King John of England the system has been growing. It is not claimed to be perfect. The only claim is that, just now, it best represents

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the highest interests of the people than any other system.

What, in this country, we regard as parliamentary law differs greatly from the system now in use in the Parliament of England. There are, of course, lines of agreement, but the divergence is so sufficiently marked that we may claim for our system the distinctive title of the American parliamentary practice.

Kinds of Assemblies.

It will be seen that all assemblies meet under some general understanding, that what has come to be known as general parliamentary law shall be the governing rules of the assembly. No assembly can possibly arrive at its conclusion without tacitly accepting this as the fundamental principle on which to proceed. The creation of any special system of procedure cannot proceed unless there be this understanding. Thus, if an assembly shall come together, there is a form of organization which the precedent of former assemblies gives the authority for such organization. When, by reason of the organization under such a tacit agreement the assembly shall be ready for business, it may then proceed to create such a system as shall properly conserve the ends to be met.

This general system by which organizations conduct their business is, therefore, of highest value to us.

That assemblies differ in their characteristics and require differences of organization is a fact that

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can be readily appreciated. The simpler sort of an organization is sufficient for many demands, while in other cases a more complicated system is imperative, and of absolute necessity.

Assemblies may be of two kinds. Those which exist by virtue of law, and those which are purely voluntary in their character.

Of the first sort, all legislative assemblies, councils for the government of municipalities and conventions for the creation or amendment of constitutions are examples. These assemblies have definite purposes and its members are there by virtue of law.

Other assemblies, such as political conventions, existing under the sanction of law may be classified as of the first sort, since its members have a right of membership under authority granted by a voluntary assembly of *quasi* legal authority.

All other assemblies wherein a general invitation to those interested is all that is needed to create it, may be called voluntary assemblies. Of this sort the political mass meetings, party caucuses and meetings to form associations are examples.

It will be seen that these various assemblies require varying methods of organization. When there is no question as to what constitutes a member, the organization can be very simply effected. Thus where an assembly exists by invitation of those interested in some given object, the organization does not require any great elaboration.

In such bodies, however, where the membership is

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settled by law, there may be many present whose right to participate in the deliberations may be disputed. It is, of course, necessary that this question shall be settled promptly and with due regard to the equities in the case. Some organization, however, is necessary to effect this purpose and some body must preside in order that an organization of some kind may be effected.

In this country, this is effected in the United States House of Representatives by the Clerk of the preceding session, who calls the roll of members from a list made up of those whose certificates of membership have been granted by the competent authority. This practice obtains generally in all the lower bodies of legislation thoughout the United States, the Clerk presiding until The Speaker shall have been elected.

In the upper houses of legislation, the presiding officer is named by law and he performes the duties of his office irrespective of the wishes of the persons composing the body.

It will be seen that in those assemblies which are created under the sanction of law and which have a definite membership, a different system must be pursued. In such assemblies, it is customary that the duty of calling the body together shall be performed by a member of the Committee to whose care has been committed the general management of the party's affairs. Thus all political conventions are so organized.

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The Quorum.

Any assembly which is created by a general invitation to those interested in some subject to attend at a certain time and place transacts its business whenever, in the opinion of those interested, there are enough present to effect the object sought. All present have an equal share in the deliberation and when the organization is effected all except the presiding officer, the secretary, and one other person might retire. Yet for the purpose of the invitation the assembly would be perfect.

In such assemblies no specified number is required to do business. In assemblies of a different character, such, for instance, as legislative bodies, boards of directors, social organizations, etc., a certain number is required to be present before the work of the body shall proceed. This special number present is called a *quorum*.

The reason for such a provision is very obvious. Without it a few persons might cause action which would be harmful to the organization or to the constituency represented. The quorum is not a definite number. Some assemblies require a fixed number. Others a majority of those who have right to participate in the deliberation.

When no provision is made for a quorum, those present constitute the quorum. It may be stated generally that in those bodies which derive their existence by reason of legal enactments, a majority constitutes a quorum.

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Without the presence of a quorum all business ceases. It is the presiding officer's duty to see that a quorum is present before any business shall be done. But it does not follow that all must assist in the transaction of the business before the body. Those who are silent are supposed to give tacit consent to what is being accomplished. The presumption of the presence of a quorum is regarded as good parliamentary law until the opposite is shown to be true.

The physical presence of a sufficient number to perform the business in hand is all that a quorum demands. If this business be voting upon a proposition, then it is not the result of the vote which shall show the quorum, but the fact that when such vote is announced the presiding officer is aware that there were others present who though not voting were still physically present. Thus, if on division of a question, the vote should show 35 in favor and 25 opposed, the total number voting would be 60. If this were a quorum, the action would be final. If, however, 65 were the quorum there would be no action unless the presiding officer knew there were others present who had not voted. In such an event, the general concensus of opinion is that he has the power to add sufficient to make the quorum.

"Silence gives consent" is the maxim upon which this action is based.

While this is true, it is not needful that during debate a quorum shall be present. The business consists in definitely recording action. Action is

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where an opinion is promulgated which represents the majority of all present who, under the restriction of the quorum, have a right to do business. Any other duty in which a deliberative body is engaged is preparatory to action, is not business and may be performed without reference to the quorum.

The practice here in this country generally is along this line. In England, in the House of Commons, the absence of a quorum when called to the speaker's attention suspends all business of all sorts whether debating or voting until the quorum is again obtained.

The only binding act which less than a quorum can perform is that of adjournment. No argument is needed to show the force of this last statement. A deliberative body could never adjourn if by some casualty sufficient of its members were unable to be present and complete a quorum. So that it will be seen that it is a very salutary provision which gives to less than a quorum the right of adjournment. This adjournment may be until the next stated time of meeting or it may be to any such prior time as those present may designate. If, however, it be simply to adjourn, then the adjournment is until the next stated time of meeting.

Organization.

In order that an assembly may do business some sort of an organization is needful. It has been created for some definite purpose and in proportion to the magnitude of the interests involved the

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character of the organization is determined. It must record its opinions and transact its business readily and in order. In the accomplishment of this purpose, *a simple organization* may be all that is required.

Mass meetings and all public gatherings, having for their object the formation of some sort of a society, usually effect this simple organization.

For the purpose of making such an organization clear, we will assume that a few persons have issued an invitation for a public meeting in behalf of some needed reforms in the conduct of public affairs. Such invitation should state the purpose of such meeting, the time and place, contain an invitation to all interested to be present and should be signed by those who desire the meeting.

This invitation has met with a generous response and at the appointed time and place the interested citizens have come together. It is customary for one of the persons who has signed the invitation to step to such a place where he may command the attention of all present and, calling for order, state briefly the object for which the meeting has been called, or he may simply read the invitation.

He then asks for nominations for chairman, or he may suggest that some person present act as chairman. Under all ordinary circumstances a nomination is made or the suggestion of the speaker may be adopted. Sometimes, however, a formal motion is made in which a person's name may be nominated and which may be followed by other nominations.

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The person presiding presents the first name and each successive name until some one shall receive the assent of a majority present. That person, so designated, comes forward, and facing those present, expresses his thanks for the honor conferred and asks the pleasure of the assembly. A secretary may then be nominated and is elected in the same form as the presiding officer. This is all that is needed to effect an organization for such an assembly. In practice it is customary, to add vice-presidents, one or more, and also secretaries. These are marks of honor, and are useful to add to the interest in the movement about to be initiated. For all assemblies of a purely voluntary character, this is all the organization that is needed to effect the purpose designed.

Such an organization as hereinbefore described is suitable, as has been intimated, for all assemblies in which there is no requirement as to membership. Such as we have seen are not the only kind of assemblages. There are those whose membership is restricted by law and whose members must be there by reason of certain certificates of election. It will follow that some sort of an organization is needful which shall determine whether these certificates rest upon a proper foundation. When that question shall have been settled, an organization may then be effected which shall be for the transaction of business. This first organization is known as the *temporary organization*, which, having fulfilled its purpose is succeeded by the *permanent organization*.

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The temporary organization is effected in the same manner as an organization of a voluntary assembly. Its first business is the examination of the certificates which give authority for those who possess them to participate in the proceedings. These certificates are known as credentials. In all legislative bodies as well as in all political conventions, this is done by what is called the Committee on Credentials. After this committee has examined the certificates of election, it reports to the assembly, which report having been adopted, the permanent organization is ready to be proceeded with.

It should be remarked in passing that in the case of legislative bodies, the roll is called from a list prepared by the clerk of the preceding legislative body, and the question of membership in case of contests is determined by a Committee of Elections after the body has been fully organized.

In all other assemblies which meet from year to year or oftener, the person who may hold over, or, as in the case of a state, county or town convention, some member of a committee is charged with the duty of effecting the temporary organization.

Having thus settled the question of those who are entitled to participate in the proceedings of the assembly, a permanent organization is then effected. Often the temporary organization is made permanent, or a committee on permanent organization, which, having been appointed at the same time as that on credentials, may then make a report in which

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the names of those who are to become the officers are clearly stated, the adoption of this report electing the officers of the permanent organization.

A description of the organization of the Assembly of the State of New York will serve to illustrate the organization of legislative bodies.

The clerk of the preceding Assembly calls to order those present who have received certificates of election from the Board of Canvassers of the several counties from which they have been elected. From a list previously prepared, from the returns in the Secretary of State's office, he calls the names of the members, a half dozen at a time, who then have the oath of office administered to them by the Secretary of State, or his deputy. Having taken the oath, each member signs a copy of the same and is then a member of the Assembly. After all have taken the oath of office, the clerk then states that nominations are in order for the presiding officer, whose title is The Speaker.

It is the custom for each political party represented to present the name of its representative, and when all the nominations have been made, the clerk calls the roll, whereat each member rises and states his choice. The person receiving the majority is then declared to be The Speaker by the clerk. A committee is appointed to conduct The Speaker to his place. A speech of thanks is then delivered by the new presiding officer and the further pleasure of the assembly is requested. The duties of the clerk are

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ended the moment the speaker is declared elected. Thereupon nominations for clerk are made and the election is proceeded with, in the same manner as for speaker. The organization is thus effected and, except for the allotting of seats to the members, the Assembly is ready for the transaction of public business.

In the case of the upper house of legislation, the presiding officer is a constitutional officer and his selection is made directly by the people when they elect the lieutenant-governor, he being always, unless performing the duties of governor, the presiding officer of the Senate.

The Senate always elects a president *pro tem.* and a clerk, who is chosen in like manner to that pursued in the lower house.

It is always the custom for each house of legislation to notify the other of its organization by a committee, and for a joint committee to notify the Governor that the Legislature is ready for public business, or for any communication which he may desire to make.

Officers.

The Presiding Officer.

It is manifest that the first officer to be chosen is the one who shall preside. He is called by various titles. In the Senate of the United States and of the various States he is called "Mr. President." In House of Representatives and in the lower houses

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of legislation, he is called "The Speaker." In all voluntary assemblies he is called, either "Mr. President," or "Mr. Chairman." In religious bodies he is sometimes called "Mr. Moderator." The distinction between the use of the words chairman and president seems to be, that the one presiding over a committee of a body shall be called, "Mr. Chairman," while the presiding officer of the body itself shall be called, "Mr. President."

The success of an assembly depends often upon the presiding officer. He is the official mouth-piece of the assembly and is the one by whom the business can be rapidly as well as properly conducted. In order to this end, he should be a person of some personal dignity, of decision, of sound sense, clear strong voice and of great good nature. He should possess a thorough knowledge of the business which occasions the meeting over which he presides, and know when the rigid enforcement of the rules is needful. He should possess a knowledge of human nature and be able to judge what action best advances the business in hand.

It has become almost an invariable rule that a poor presiding officer may render the most enlightened assembly a most turbulent body.

It is the presiding officer who becomes, by reason of his office, the instrument of the will of the body over which he presides.

The finest exhibition of this fact is to be found in English history. Charles I. requested the Speaker of

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the House of Commons to point out certain persons whom he desired to apprehend. The Speaker replied "Sire, I have eyes and ears to see and hear only what this House directs me."

While the presiding officer may have any powers which the body over which he presides may direct him to perform, the following may represent, in general, his duties:

I. To call the assembly to order at the time and place designated for that purpose.

II. To determine if a quorum be present.

III. To cause the journal of the previous meeting to be read.

IV. To present to the meeting the business in the order provided by the rules.

V. To present all business which shall arise by reason of a motion.

VI. To announce, or cause to be announced, the result of such business.

VII. To decide all questions of order.

VIII. In case of an appeal from his decision to submit the same to the assembly.

IX. To preserve order and enforce the rules.

X. To see that all communications are properly placed before the assembly.

XI. To give authority to all orders of the assembly by his signature.

XII. In his absence from the chair to name a person who shall preside; and, finally, to perform whatever shall represent the will of the assembly.

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These are the specific duties of the presiding officer. As the executive head, there may come duties which are not provided for by the rules, or there may inquiries be made which are needful to exhibit the true inwardness of some proposed business. These inquiries are known as *parlimentary inquiries.* Sometimes they are denominated *points of information.* They are allowable and the presiding officer has sole option whether to reply or not. Generally, he may refrain from a reply when it is apparent that such reply would improperly influence the decision of some question at issue. In that event he might prefer argument upon the same.

The presiding officer represents the dignity of the body of which he is the executive head. He has a right to the highest respect, not because of the person, but of the office. He is under obligation because of that relation, to rise when stating a motion or addressing the assembly. Otherwise his position may be any thing he may choose to make it, so long as it comports with the dignity of his office.

He is subject to removal for cause, when elected for a specified time and may be removed at any time when elected during the pleasure of the house.

It may be here stated that he has the right, when a member of the assembly, to participate in the debate, and is supposed to be impartial in his ruling, exercising only such salutary influence upon the body discussing a question as shall bring about the highest

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degree of decorum. He is the sole judge of what constitutes order and may at any time exercise this prerogative. His duty is to confine the member speaking to the question at issue. At all times he has the right to call a substitute to the chair, and he may himself take part in the debate under such circumstances. He may while presiding give *in extenso* his reasons for a decision on a point of order, but beyond that has no right to debate a question while in the chair.

The Secretary.

The secretary or clerk is the second officer of an assembly whose presence is absolutely necessary in the conduct of business. He is sometimes called "*the recorder.*" He is elected in the same manner as the presiding officer. In his absence, no matter how temporary, a substitute should be chosen so that the business of the assembly may proceed.

He should be a careful, attentive and judicious person, with capacity to read well and possess some knowledge of parliamentary law. He should possess some knowledge of composition, so that the record shall clearly represent the business accomplished by the assembly. In general his duties may be stated as follows :

I. To read all papers which may be required by the presiding officer, the assembly, or the rules.

II. To keep and preserve a list of members.

III. To record whatever is actually done by the assembly, but not necessarily what is said.

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IV. To preserve a record of all votes when the same has been visibly performed.

V. To preserve on file all communications which, having been received by the assembly, have become a part of the proceedings.

VI. To authenticate, by his signature, in connection with the presiding officer, all orders of the assembly.

His relations to the assembly require that he shall conduct himself with dignity, and that when reading any paper, or othewise performing any duty in which he shall be giving desired information, shall stand.

The widest latitude is permitted the recording officer in the work of making a record of the proceedings of the assembly. It has come to be understood that not merely what is passed upon and thus become the dictum of the assembly, shall enter in the record; but whatever may add to making the record an account of all that was said or done. This will apply to all assemblies wherein a constituency desires the fullest information of what was said as well as done. The proceedings of religious convocations thus give very full reports covering not only the action, but all the steps that lead up to it.

The strict rule is, however, that only that which is actually done shall constitute the record. This practice obtains in all deliberative bodies having their existence by reason of legal enactments.

The right of the clerk to participate in the proceedings of the assembly of which he is a duly con-

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stituted member is not abridged. His privileges and rights are not curtailed by his acceptance of office, except so far as the proper performance of his duties shall affect them. He is the servant of all for a specific purpose and that is paramount to all other considerations. His duty as clerk he must perform or resign.

MEMBERS.

A member of an assembly is subject to certain requirements. He is upon an equal footing with every other member present, and has a right to the largest degree of liberty in presenting subjects for consideration. Upon all subjects presented he has a right to debate. The general rule of all assemblies is that all members are free to do as they will so long as they do not trespass on the freedom of others. No member has a right to interrupt another when speaking unless to correct what he believes to have been a violation of order. Forbearance and courtesy are the basic principles which should control in all cases.

Decorum and propriety are as needful when not in debate as when debate is in progress. So that all things which are not the mark of a gentleman are foreign to any deliberative body.

To state the duties of a member would be a difficult task, but in the main they are:

I. Not to interrupt a member when speaking without permission from him.

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II. To rise when addressing the chair and to remain standing until recognized by the presiding officer.

III. To perform no ungentlemanly acts.

IV. To refrain from passing between the presiding officer and a member who may be speaking.

V. To maintain order himself and refrain from conversation.

VI. To avoid the use of improper or intemperate language when speaking.

VII. To appeal from the presiding officer's decision when in his judgment the same does not harmonize with justice to himself.

VIII. To avoid all conduct that shall tend to hamper or obstruct the proceedings of the body,

IX. Lastly, So to conduct himself that he shall not interfere with the rights and privileges of any or all present.

These are some of the rights and duties of the members of any deliberative assembly.

It will surely be seen that the good order of an assembly depends on the measure of forbearance which one member may have toward the other. The value of any deliberative body's action depends much on how orderly the proceedings have been conducted. In a state of disorder and inattention improper schemes have very often been acted upon and strifes and jealousies have been aroused which have never been allayed. The highest efficiency of any assembly is best attained where decorum rules.

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The Transaction of Business.

All deliberative bodies of whatever nature are created for some purpose. The accomplishment of this purpose is its business. With an organization perfected it is prepared at once to proceed with the business which may have been the cause of its creation. That this business may be presented in proper order is the special province of general parliamentary practice.

It is the commonly accepted practice that whatever is desired for discussion in any deliberative assembly shall be presented in at least one of these forms:

I. By a formal motion.
II. By a communication.
III. By a petition.

These three methods take in all the ways by which those who may be members, or who may be its servants, or who may have no relation to the assembly whatever can with due regard to the fitness of things bring matters of interest and importance to the attention of the assembly.

To show this more fully, let us suppose that Mr. A. believes that a certain change in an established procedure will be of benefit to his community; he presents the matter in a formal motion. If the officer of a State government desires to inform the Legislature of certain needed reforms in the administration of the affairs of his office, he can do that by a formal communication in which is outlined the condition of affairs as they exist, why they are detrimental and

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how they may be remedied. Again, should any company of citizens living in a certain portion of a city desire a new street to be cut through for their convenience, a petition to the proper local authorities would be the means by which the matter could be brought to their attention.

All business, however, of every nature, in whatever manner it may have been brought to the attention of the assemby, is not properly in its possession until the same shall have been formally presented in *a motion.* When restated by the presiding officer it is then *a question.* If finally approved, it becomes either *a resolution, an order, or an act.* Now, all deliberative bodies with a distinct membership, are absolute in their control of what shall be presented. A member has a right, by motion, to present any matter for discussion, but the presiding officer need not present any communication that does not, in some way, have a relation by reason of either law or existing rules to the body over which he presides. The petitioner can only gain access to the assembly's ears by means of some member. The restriction of this creation of business is that it shall only proceed from those who, by reason of membership, have a right to present matters for discussion. Hence, with an organization perfected, the assembly is ready for any business which the members may seek to bring before it.

How shall business be created? Let us suppose that some member has a proposition which he desires

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to submit to the assembly. He arises in his place and, addressing the presiding officer, calls out, "Mr. President," or whatever title the presiding officer may have. The chair then recognizes the person thus addressing him by saying, "Mr. —— has the floor," or he may curtail his recognition by simply mentioning his name. In legislative bodies the name is not mentioned, but the recognition is to specify the State, county or district which the rising member may represent. The person so recognized is said *to have the floor*, and it is his so long as he shall proceed in order. Having now possession of the floor, he proceeds to state concisely and with the best language, the proposition he desires to bring before the assembly, and usually precedes his remarks by saying, "I move that," etc. This is the formal motion and must be put in writing if so desired by either the president or any member. This is but the formal notice of the proposition. A second and further act is needed before it is completed. Another member of the assembly must arise and, after obtaining the floor, say, "I second the motion." So far as the act of introduction goes that is complete. The presiding officer is now required to rise and state the motion, prefixing it with the words, "It is moved and seconded that," and on completion of statement of the subject-matter of the motion, he then adds, "Is there anything to be said upon the question?" The business is now in possession of the assembly.

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It is sometimes the practice to mention the names of the mover and seconder.

It will be seen that several steps are needed before the business of an assembly is ready for action.

I. To obtain the floor by being recognized by the chair.

II. The statement of the motion by the mover.

III. The seconding of the same by another member.

IV. The restatement by the chair.

Several persons may desire to obtain the floor at once and the presiding officer must decide which one shall have the floor. His decision is seldom disputed. He may decide by reason of several things, but generally the one whom he sees rise first is awarded the floor. He may not have had his attention directed so as to be able to see and then his decision may rest on the first voice he may have heard. When he shall have indicated the one entitled to the floor, all others are to be seated and there remain unless the one to whom has been accorded the floor shall be out of order. The decision of the chair in assigning the floor is only final by courtesy and any member has the right of an appeal from this decision. In other words, the assembly has the power to give the floor to some other person. In general, as stated, the indication of the chair is regarded as final; and in the U. S. House of Representatives the decision of the speaker is final and unquestioned. Too much stress cannot be laid

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on the application of the principle that the one who is in order shall be entitled to the floor in preference to one who is out of order. Hence the preference for the one who addresses the Chair from his own place.

The requirement of a second proceeds on the general principle that if the mover of a motion is the only one favorable to it, it is not worth the attention of the body. It is the custom in many legislative bodies to require no second to the ordinary motions, the use of the second being waived by consent. In all deliberative bodies this second is an absolute requirement and is the natural complement of the motion.

The restatement by the Chair is the concluding act in the introduction of business. It cannot be debated, nor can any statements be made upon it, nor, indeed, can any other member of the assembly suggest any other business. The mover may make certain changes either by his own volition or by reason of the suggestions of another. Once stated by the Chair, it has passed beyond the mover's control and he can only change it by consent of the assembly or by an amendment. Before the formal statement by the presiding officer, the mover, with the consent of the second, may withdraw it. After such statement its fate is with the assembly. This is the strict statement of the practice, but the usages in many places vary; so that in some cases the permission to withdraw a motion even when in possession of the assembly obtains.

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The requisition that a motion be in writing will be seen to be very wise. The recording officer needs know the exact phraseology of a motion. The presiding officer having to restate it is required to state the same *verbatim.* The course of debate may demand the re-reading of the question one or more times. In general, the motions which may arise that have to do with the disposal of the proposition itself are not required to be in writing.

The proposition is now before the assembly and the discussion of the same is in order. It may be that in the opinion of many present who are not prepared either to vote upon or discuss the question, the time is inopportune and so desire its defeat or postponement. There are certain means by which this purpose may be effected.

This may be accomplished in the following ways:

I. By raising the question of consideration.
II. Point of order.
III. To lay on the table.
IV. To postpone indefinitely.
V. To postpone to a certain day.
VI. To refer to a committee or to commit.
VII. The previous question.
VIII. To adjourn.

These motions, because they have reference to the *main question,* as original motion is now called, are denominated *subsidary motions* and are used to suppress the proposition before the assembly or to defer its consideration.

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The Question of Consideration.

This question must be raised immediately after the statement of the motion by the Chair. The member, so desiring, rises in his place and, after having been accorded the floor, says, "Mr. President. On that, I raise the question of consideration." This raises, at once, the question, shall the assembly debate the question? It is not debatable, for there is nothing to debate. It is simply whether at this time it is wise to proceed with the debate. Those who desire thus to debate, vote favorable to the question, for, stripped of all verbiage, the question means, shall we debate or shall we not? Those who do not so desire, vote against the question. If decided in the affirmative, the debate proceeds. If in the negative, it disposes of the question finally. There are no limitations to the use of this motion, except that it can not apply to amendments to the main question.

The Point of Order.

If the question of consideration, be not raised some member may arise and say: "I rise to a point of order," following this introduction by stating that the question is in violation of certain fixed rules of the assembly. If the Chair shall decide that this point of order is well taken, it has the effect to defer the consideration of the question, and, so far as the business before the assembly is concerned, it is as if there had been none proposed. These two methods of procedure differ in the sense that the first is decided

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by the assembly, the second by the Chair, subject to an appeal, in the absence of which the action is assumed to be approved by the assembly. Both of them are to be raised immediately after the statement of the motion by the Chair and before debate shall have begun.

When debate shall have been begun the method of disposing of the main question rests in the use of the other subsidiary motions stated in the table.

To Lay on the Table.

The moving of this question has the effect of postponing the debate. It carries with it everything that belongs to the question. Should the motion be made on the amendment, it carries with it the main question also. The favorable action upon this motion has no effect on the condition of the main question or its amendments. It simply lays it all aside, and when called up at some future time is in precisely the same condition as when it was laid upon the table. If the motion to lay on the table is not carried, it cannot be again made until by reason of some amendment or other change in the main question that question presents a new phase. It is not debatable nor can it be amended. It is of equal rank with other subsidiary motions except that of consideration, to which it is inferior, and in practical use it is designed to kill a proposition against which it is raised.

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To Postpone Indefinitely.

The motion to postpone indefinitely is used when the debate, having proceeded, it is desired to lay aside the further consideration of the question without bringing a determination of the question. Its purpose, in addition, is to test the strength of the sentiment in favor of the proposition under discussion inasmuch as a defeat of the motion itself is favorable to the main question. Since the fate of the main question itself is at stake as to its advisability and practicability, it will be seen that this motion must be debatable. It is not amendable and when decided in the affirmative the main question is defeated. It has the same standing as that to commit, to postpone to a certain day or the previous question.

To Postpone to a Certain Day.

The name of the motion describes it fully. It is of use in cases where further information is desired upon the subject under discussion, which is not then available. It may also occur that there are matters of greater importance which require immediate attention. Under such a circumstance a motion to postpone to a certain day retains to the main question all its rights and privileges until that day shall arrive. It is amendable only so far as the time to which the postponement shall take place and it is debatable on the question of postponement only. If decided in the negative, it leaves the main question still open for debate. The improper use of this

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motion is to designate a day to which the main question shall be deferred that can have no possible existence, because the assembly will then be adjourned. Such a use practically makes it a question of indefinite postponement and is not the proper use of this motion.

In the usage of the motions to lay on the table, to postpone indefinitely and to postpone to a certain day, it must be remembered, as has been stated, that their affirmative acceptance by an assembly defers the action upon the main question; but in order to again bring these matters forward for debate and possible passage, a formal motion is needed. Even if a question be postponed to a certain day, the mere fact that that day has arrived does not bring the subject again before the assembly. A formal motion when favorably acted upon brings the matter up for debate, and only by this method can the subject be officially passed upon. Otherwise it is dead.

To Commit.

Immediately after the statement of the motion by the presiding officer, or at any other time in the debate, it may appear that the subject can be more fully investigated by a committee. The assembly may desire fuller knowledge, or it may be that the proposition is not in accordance with recognized principles of action. A further discussion would be a needless waste of the assembly's time. To dispose of the matter so that the best of what

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the proposition may contain shall be sifted out, is a wise provision. This may be accomplished by the motion *to commit.* This motion then contemplates not the passage of the subject matter under discussion, nor yet does it negative anything that has been proposed. It is purely for the purpose of expediting the business in hand. It is often used to dispose of obnoxious legislation, so that reaching the committee its unfavorable provisions may be removed, or the whole matter may never be permitted to reach the stage of a report.

When this motion is carried, the whole matter with all the amendments goes to the committee, and this motion may direct what disposition the committee is to make of the matter thus submitted. It may also create the committee thus charged with the duty where none exists.

It is debatable but not so as to involve the main question, since, if decided in the affirmative, it leaves the whole discussion to that period when the committee shall have made its report. It is amendable because it may or may not contain a direction or instruction to the committee. In that event, if the instructions involve the main question, the debate becomes the same as if no motion to commit had been made.

The Previous Question.

The use of the previous question is very general in the American practice for the purpose of shutting off debate. It is the weapon by which those who

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would obstruct the rapid transaction of business are prevented from using up time by simply talking.

Originally this motion was used for the purpose of suppressing the main question. If matters came up in Parliament which involved those whose positions were high in state, this motion, if carried, suppressed the main question and set it aside absolutely. In our American practice, as intimated, it has acquired the other and better use of bringing to a vote the proposition involved under the main question. The vast amount of time which has been wasted in many deliberative bodies has proved the value of this motion to prevent this needless talk. That all questions before any assembly are entitled to the fullest discussion is a fact that no one can deny, but often there are other and greater interests which are to be conserved. The previous question has the effect of conserving this purpose. Being ordered by the consent of a majority of those present, it represents the will of the assembly toward the furthering of the business in hand. In the Senate of the United States this motion has no place, the Senatorial courtesy allowing the fullest and freest debate on all subjects. The passage of time or the interests of the people apparently having no weight.

In practice the use of the previous question is as follows: Where the debate has reached a point that some member believes it should cease, or if when the president shall have formally stated the

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motion, debate shall not be desired, some member arises and says: "I move the previous question." The presiding officer may use the old formula "Shall the main question now be put?" or he may say, which is now the better practice, "Mr. —— demands the previous question. Those in favor will please say aye; those opposed, no." It follows that the previous question is neither debatable nor amendable. If carried, the amendments, if any, are first put and then the main question. If the previous question be not carried, the consideration goes on as before. The previous question itself may be deferred by a motion to lay it on the table, which, in the event of its adoption, permits the debate to proceed; but if defeated, the business of the assembly is to dispose of the previous question.

Again the previous question on its adoption may be deferred by a motion to adjourn. This, if carried, makes the action under the previous question the first business of the next session of the assembly.

The previous question is regarded as of equal importance as the other subsidiary motions except the first two named and cannot be used to dispose of any of them. The previous question is solely for the purpose of shutting off debate and bringing immediate action upon the main question.

Amendments.

The use of the subsidiary motions having failed to set aside the debate on the motion before the

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assembly, it is now ready for the fullest discussion. It is apparent that whatever its form, the question may not be absolutely satisfactory to all present. The sole object of the debate is to arrive at a final conclusion respecting the motion that shall represent the concensus of the opinion of all, or if not all, the largest possible proportion of those present.

Generally in deliberative bodies of a comparatively small membership, the motions are short and their general tenor can be readily borne in mind ; but in larger asemblies, especially those which are legislative or municipal in character, the subject-matter for discussion involves several propositions and, therefore, should be printed. Thus a BILL is practically a motion when presented in proper form to a legislative body and it is obvious that each member should possess a copy. In all assemblies of this character, the motions which have many varying propositions should be printed. A set of resolutions often contain a preamble as a sort of introduction to what the resolutions themselves seek to explain. It is customary to discuss the resolutions and pass upon them and then to dispose of the preamble.

The main question under discussion when first proposed may not represent the opinion of some who, in a general way, may be favorable to the principle which it may contain. It is evident that there ought to be some means by which it may be modified and changed so as to be generally acceptable. This is accomplished by amendment. To be de-

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prived of this method of correction would require the acceptance of that which was dissatisfactory in part or in whole, or the rejection of that which may have contained something that was commendable. So it has come to be regarded as a principle of parliamentary practice that whatever the assembly has a right to originate, it has also a right to amend.

An amendment then is a motion having relation to a preceding motion in order that the same may be changed or modified. It is proposed in the same manner as the original motion and must be seconded and restated by the presiding officer before it can be debated.

The general method of amendment is by one of four ways:

I. Inserting words.
II. Striking out words.
III. Striking out and inserting.
IV. By substitution.

The amendment itself is susceptible of amendment and at that point the amendments cease. If the process of amendment were to be prolonged, it will be seen that an infinite number would be added, so that great confusion might ensue. Hence, the amendment to the amendment is fixed as the limit. The amendment to the amendment must first be disposed of and all discussion when that is pending must be upon the proposition therein. When this shall have been voted upon, the amendment must then be taken up. But the amended amendment

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may be amended by a new motion to amend. The amended amendment having been decided the amended motion becomes the question for decision. The general rule is, that whenever an amendment shall have been disposed of, it is right, if deemed needful to the proper completion of the business in hand, to amend. A negative action upon an amendment disposes of that amendment permanently and it cannot again be proposed.

To amend by inserting words is the simple process of adding words to the main question or of interpolating in the body of the main question. It is necessary that the mover of such an amendment shall specify where the words are to be inserted and what will be the nature of the main question with the new words inserted. If there be no debate on the amendment, the presiding officer shall then rise and say, "The question is upon the amendment to insert," stating what is to be inserted.

If carried it then becomes a part of the main question. A negative action prevents the matter being brought forward again in that shape and the main question remains the same.

To amend by striking out is similar to the preceding method. The mover should state in his motion to amend what words are to be stricken out and what the main question will be when they are so eliminated. This amendment, like all others of first degree, is susceptible of amendment and of debate, which, if not offered, the presiding officer shall rise and say, "The

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question is upon the amendment to strike out," stating what is to be stricken out.

If the action on the amendment is in the affirmative, then the words become no part of the main question. If it fails to receive the assent of a majority present, it leaves the main question in its original form and the same amendment cannot again be proposed.

There may arise a question which, in order to make it agreeable to the opinions of those present, may require that some words be stricken out and others inserted. This may be effected by the third method — by striking out and inserting. The amendment must state the words to be stricken out and those to be inserted. This motion to amend cannot be divided. It is one act of change. It must be decided as it is presented. It can be amended by adding other words to be stricken out in addition to those mentioned in the original amendment and by inserting others, but the amendment is a unity and must be taken as such when decided. If not debated or amended, the presiding officer shall rise and say, "The question is on the amendment to strike out and insert," stating the words thus to be removed and inserted.

The affirmative action removes from the main question the words to be eliminated and inserts the desired addition. The negative of the amendment leaves the main question or amendment as it stood.

To amend by substitution, is in effect the same as the preceding motion. A person desiring to thus

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amend, in effect, takes away from a proposition certain portions and substitutes others. In the use of the preceding method of amendment, the portion to be stricken out may occur in a different section of a paragraph under discussion from that wherein words are to be inserted. Whatever is stricken out, is out forever and the same rule applies to whatever is inserted. Usage has made it that when a paragraph is stricken out and another inserted, those who favor the old paragraph shall have the privilege of perfecting it before the motion to strike out shall have been decided. A little reflection will show that without such a provision, the rejection of the original paragraph would remove it forever and the new one might not possess the requirements acceptable to all.

The difference between these last two methods of amendment is that of location. In practice, motions to amend by substitution simply supply a new and perhaps totally different proposition to that one contained in the original question, and, in effect, strikes out and inserts. It applies to but one place in a proposition.

The use of the amendment by substitution is sometimes preferable to that of amendment by striking out and inserting.

In general where whole paragraphs are to be stricken out and new ones inserted, or where the amendment is by substitution of one paragraph for another, the right to perfect each is undisputed, and until such perfection of both the old and the new

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paragraph is completed the motion lies in abeyance, unless ordered by the previous question. If neither paragraph is acceptable, then a negative action on the motion to substitute prevents the new paragraph from being accepted, and a second motion to strike out the original paragraph removes that paragraph.

The adoption of an amendment does not adopt the main question. The adoption of the amendment to the amendment does not adopt the amendment. Whenever an amendment shall have been adopted, the question of which it is now a part is to be adopted. So that whenever the discussion on an amendment to an amendment shall have reached that point where action is ready to be taken, the presiding officer shall say, "The question is on the amendment to the amendment." When that is decided and the debate on the amended amendment is completed, the presiding officer then says, "The question is now on the amended amendment." When all amendments have thus been disposed of, the presiding officer then says, "The question is on the motion as amended."

No more than one amendment can be pending at one time and when settled by the assembly other amendments are always in order.

It has been stated that the mover of a motion has no control over it after it has come into the possession of the assembly. This is the strict rule. In many cases the custom has permitted the modification of the motion by the mover accepting suggested amendments, and thus avoiding the debate and action

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by the assembly. All this is purely by courtesy and common consent, and can be proper when no objection is made. Strict application of the principles of parliamentary law makes this an infringement of the practice.

The main question may present a series of propositions which may be so crudely drawn as to fail to represent that which may be acceptable to all, but which may contain that which, if properly arranged, would be of the highest utility. Such a question may be amended by adding certain paragraphs together, or by transposing the order, or by separating into paragraphs the whole question itself. Such a course would be an amendment of the original question. In a deliberative body, such as a State Legislature, the work could be much better accomplished by a committee, but where the assembly must perform the task, the amendments are by *addition*, *separation* and *transposition*. The main question may contain two propositions; the first may be highly satisfactory, but the second may be objectionable. To act upon it as a whole, would be to imperil the part that was acceptable because of the character of the second part. Such a difficulty is avoided by dividing the question and submitting each proposition separately. Such a course of amendment is known as *division*. It is evident that when the main question is thus divided, each division must be a clear and distinct proposition and be capable of representing a statement of fact that is unmistakable. In practice, this

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amendment can be demanded by any member, and if the assembly refuse, the same purpose can be effected by a motion to strike out the offensive portion. The filling of blanks in the main question is not regarded in the strict sense of an amendment. All the amounts proposed are set down by the presiding officer and the highest amount is presented for approval. If this is disapproved, the next lower one is submitted. Thus the process proceeds until an amount shall have been reached which shall represent the wishes of the majority.

To treat the filling of blanks as an amendemnt would prevent those who might desire a different and greater amount than that suggested in the amendment from voting against it lest another amendment might suggest a less amount.

The object of all amendments is for the purpose of perfecting the main question. It is evident that they should be in harmony with the main question and not bring in matter that is foreign to the subject. Those who may not favor the main question may often so construct an amendment which if adopted will present the opposite aspect to that intended by the main question. Such an amendment has the effect of making the mover and friends of main question its enemies. Such a use of the amendment is allowable, and properly so, because it is a means by which offensive and highly improper motions may be disposed of when all subsidiary motions have failed. To propose an amendment

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which shall change the substance of the main question is in order. However, to simply amend so that the affirmative shall be changed to the negative of a question is not in order and is not an amendment in the true sense of the word.

The constitutionality of an amendment is entirely a matter for the assembly to decide. Any amendment which shall seem to be incompatible or inconsistent is open to discussion and the assembly has the sole power of accepting or rejecting it. In all cases when this condition exists a point of order upon the amendment is out of order, since the presiding officer cannot pre-empt the powers which belong to the assembly.

Motions.

The proper conclusion of a main question is its decision affirmatively or negatively by the assembly. Before such a conclusion can be reached, other motions having more or less general reference to the main question may arise and must be decided before any conclusion can be reached on the main question.

These motions are grouped under three general heads. Their use is mainly for the general protection of the rights of the members and for the elucidation of the subjects proposed in the questions to which they more or less relate.

They are as follows:

I. Questions of privilege.
II. Subsidiary questions.
III. Incidental questions.

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When these questions are raised they must receive immediate attention. In some cases, as we have seen, they dispose of the main question absolutely. In other cases, they simply defer action. Some of them are subject to debate and amendment. Others are to be decided without debate and cannot be amended.

Privileged Motions.

By *Privileged Motions* are meant those motions which because of their importance require immediate attention and action. They may have a reference to the main question under discussion and may be of use to defer action upon the main question. In practice, however, they stand alone without involving subjects which may be before the assembly for action and are privileged in that sense.

They are as follows:

I. Motions to adjourn.
II. Motions to fix the time to which the assembly shall adjourn.
III. Motions for a recess.
IV. General privilege in which the whole assembly is involved.
V. Personal privilege involving the rights of a member.

Adjournment.

The motion to adjourn, as its name implies, permits an assembly to cease from its labors.

When no other provision exists, the ordinary use

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of the motion to adiourn has reference to a cessation of the business of the assembly until the next period appointed by the rules for its assembling. The old statement that a motion to adjourn is always in order is true in a sense, but there are exceptions under which it is not in order. It cannot be proposed when three conditions obtain, namely: If a member shall have the floor, or the assembly shall be ascertaining the correctness of a vote, or the assembly itself is dividing upon a motion. Under such circumstances, it would not be in order. Among the questions of privilege it stands first, and if having been put and lost it cannot again be moved until some other business shall have been acted upon.

The motion to adjourn is not debatable nor amendable unless the motion, if carried, should cause the dissolution of the assembly. All legislative bodies are, by law, made to continue from day to day, and the motion that "we do now adjourn," is under the express understanding that it is to assemble the next day. Hence, the matter of when the sittings of any deliberative body shall take place, is a very important consideration.

It is evident that because of the character of this motion its affirmative passage will cause a cessation of any business in hand; and for that reason it may be used in the sense of a subsidiary motion to defer debate. The effect of such an adjournment does not place the business of the next session at the same point where the last session left it. The

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business must be brought forward in the usual manner, if it is to be again discussed, as the unfinished business.

If, however, it should be the purpose of an assembly to lay aside all business for a short period in order that some needful rest might be obtained, the motion then is for a recess rather than for an adjournment. Such a motion should state the time to which the intermission extends. Such a motion has all the privileges of the motion to adjourn. The motion to fix the time of adjournment is a privileged motion, in the sense that when made it takes precedence over all other motions, unless a motion for a recess is pending. It is obvious that a motion to take a recess is in its essence substantially a motion to adjourn to a certain day. It is evident that a motion cannot be privileged against itself. Such a motion would be in order if an assembly whose regular meeting came each day desired to adjourn for two days. If so moved, it would be debatable and amendable and would be a privileged motion.

Questions of Privilege.

The next two prominent motions are termed *Questions of Privilege.* As observed in the table, they are of two kinds; the infringement of the rights and privileges of the assembly; the infringement of the rights and privileges of its members.

Questions of privilege, whether general or per-

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sonal in character, are to be defined as those which, in the first case, affect the dignity and integrity of the assembly itself; or, in the second, the honesty, character and reputation of the members. Any infraction of the good order of the assembly from without, such as the disorderly character of any visitor who may be permitted to be present, would come under the head of a question of general privilege. Any attack by newspapers upon the good name of a member or a personal encounter during the session of an assembly can be regarded as a question of personal privilege.

Whenever a question of privilege shall be raised by a member, he is required to rise and say: "I rise to a question of privilege." He then proceeds to state what the question is. He may have been falsely charged with improper conduct. He addresses his remarks to the presiding officer. It is the province of the presiding officer to decide whether it be a question of privilege. If he so decides, the assembly immediately takes formal action by which the matter may be thoroughly sifted. The question of privilege decided, the assembly proceeds with the consideration of whatever business was interrupted.

Should the decision of the presiding officer be a negative one, the assembly proceeds with the work that was interrupted when the question of privilege was raised. Whatever the decision of the presiding officer, it is subject to appeal, and the assembly, in effect, decides whether the subject-matter thus

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brought forward when the question of privilege is raised is of such importance as to need adjustment.

Subsidiary Motions.

Subsidiary motions have already been treated in the preceding pages.

Incidental Questions.

Incidental Questions are those which arise from other motions, whether they be privileged or subsidiary. They are to be decided before any decision can be given on the main or other questions to which they are tributary. They are six in number, viz.:

I. Questions of order.
II. Reading of papers.
III. Withdrawing a motion.
IV. Suspension of a rule.
V. Division of a question.
VI. Amendment to an amendment.

Questions of Order.

To the presiding officer is delegated the power of preserving order. He is not the sole arbiter of what constitutes order. That has been decided by the assembly when it created the rules for its guidance. To the presiding officer the task obtains to see that these rules are carried out. It is manifest that without orderly regard for these rules on the part of the members themselves, the presiding officer can have but little hope to preserve order. No business of any sort can be properly done unless order is

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preserved. This matter of order is general in its character and has reference to what is said as well as done. Any departure from the rules is a breach of order which the presiding officer is to correct. In his absence so to correct, it is the right of any member to call attention to this fact and insist on an enforcement of the rule. If the presiding officer himself fails to see that the regular procedure of business is not being followed, his attention should be called to that fact in order that the business may be done in order. It is the right of any member to have the business proceed with due regard to the rules. Thus, if the rules provided that no member should speak more than twice on any motion, and some member should essay to speak a third time, it would be the province of any member to rise and say "I rise to a point of order." The presiding officer should then require him to state it. The statement of the point of order would be to show what the rules provided and call attention to the fact that the member was offending against the established rule. The presiding officer would then say "The point of order is well taken," indicating thereby that the member thus essaying to speak was out of order. All decisions of a presiding officer are subject to an appeal and such appeal is debatable Whenever an appeal is taken from a decision of the Chair, the question then for the presiding officer to propound is, "Shall the decision of the Chair stand?" This question is subject, as before

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remarked, to debate in which the presiding officer has a right to participate. The affirmative action of the assembly sustains the decision of the Chair. An appeal does not require to be seconded and is subject to all other motions as the main question itself. Whatever questions of order may come up in the process of the debate on an appeal from the Chair's decision, must be at once decided by the presiding officer, since but one appeal can be under adjustment at same time.

Reading of Papers.

It is apparent that whenever a motion shall have been offered and become the possession of the assembly, the right to have the same read by any member cannot be disputed. It is for the sole purpose of informing the member, so that he may be enabled to vote intelligently, When so requested the clerk, by direction of the presiding officer, is to read the paper. There come, however, times when in the course of debate, some member may desire to have read some paper not a part of the question, nor in any sense an amendment thereto, but a paper which shall give further information upon the question at issue. If the wholesale reading of such papers were permitted, it is quite easy to see how very prolix might become the discussion upon the subject in hand. General parliamentary practice has very wisely limited the reading of papers to such ones as the assembly by vote shall desire to hear.

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Hence, the request by a member to read a paper is an incidental question to the main question and is to be decided as of the same character as a motion, but without debate. In common practice the reading of papers is by courtesy, and if objection is made it cannot be read except as stated.

Withdrawing a Motion.

A motion once stated by the Chair is the sole and absolute possession of an assembly. The mover may desire its withdrawal, but only can this be done when the assembly pleases. He is powerless except by a regular motion to withdraw, and whenever so made by the mover of a motion, must be decided at once and without debate. The affirmative action on a motion to withdraw, removes the main question. If the motion receives a negative action, the assembly retains possession of the main question. In some assemblies a special rule permits the mover to withdraw a motion before amendment or decision upon it.

Suspension of Rules

The regular course of business in coming to a decision on the main question may reach a point wherein an existing rule made by the assembly for its guidance may prevent a continuance of the debate. It may be that the highest interests of the assembly are to be conserved by the passage of the proposed question under debate. To accomplish

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this purpose the existing rules must be suspended. It is then in order to move a suspension of the rules. Parliamentary practice has come to recognize such a contingency, by requiring that such a provision shall be inserted in the rules that govern the assembly, since in the absence of such a provision no suspension can be had. When a suspension of the rules is allowable, a motion to suspend is to be decided at once and is not, of course, debatable. This provision to suspend rules is surrounded by safeguards, and as a rule, something more than a majority vote is needed to effect a suspension. Ordinarily three-fifths and often three-fourths of those present and voting are needed to suspend a rule.

The incidental motions of division and of amendment have already been treated at length in this treatise.

Reconsideration.

The rule of all deliberative assemblies, that whatever is voted upon and so disposed of represents the judgment of the assembly, is a wise one. Having discussed a subject and expressed an opinion favorable or otherwise thereto, it is assumed that this is the best judgment of the assembly, and, hence, is not to be changed.

In the English practice, to change such action, or even to review it, seems to be impossible. In our American practice, the mere passage of the main question, whether amended or not, does not finally dispose of it. It is still subject to review and may

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again be properly considered. To effect this purpose the motion to reconsider becomes operative.

A motion to reconsider is not debarred from any course of action by the assembly. It may be used with reference to the vote on an amendment as well as upon the main question and applies equally as well upon an affirmative action as upon a negative one.

Before considering at length the motion to reconsider, it is proper to call attention to the fact that certain amendments may be proposed which may be an equivalent one of the other. Thus to negative a motion to strike out would be equivalent to a motion to insert words which would make the words the assembly refused to strike out of no effect and would be considering an amendment the substance of which had been before proposed. It is evident that this would be an infringement of the general rule that what has once been considered cannot again be considered. The motion to reconsider has the effect of avoiding the infraction of the rule and, at the same time, giving opportunity for further discussion.

The value of the motion to reconsider cannot be too highly esteemed. The final action of an assembly in the light of certain developments may become both embarrassing and highly dangerous to the assembly itself. The work of a legislative body may be wrong in principle notwithstanding the care which may have been taken. The corrective power of the

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motion to reconsider is so very valuable that the American system of parliamentary practice has carefully retained it.

The use of the motion is not restricted to any particular condition that may arise. It is practically unlimited in its scope and is only circumscribed by the one who may use it.

A motion to reconsider must be made by one who has voted favorably for the passage of the resolution to be reconsidered. It is upon the generally accepted rule that if no person of the favoring party desires the reconsideration, it would be useless for one of the opposing party to attempt a reconsideration. If the presiding officer does not know that the mover is of the party favorable to the original motion, he may inquire whether he had voted for the proposition originally.

The practice that has obtained requires that the motion for reconsideration shall be made on the same day on which the motion was originally disposed of, but the general rule is to permit it to be moved also during the session next following. It is not necessary that the motion be considered the day it is moved.

The motion may be made on the day permitted by the rules, and its consideration may be deferred till some future time. Whenever a motion to reconsider shall have been carried, it brings the whole matter up for discussion. If, for instance, an amendment shall have been decided upon, a motion to recon-

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sider, if adopted, brings the amendment before the assembly. If the main question shall have been adopted, the motion to reconsider brings up all the business which belonged to the question in its original condition.

There are certain limitations to the motion to reconsider. When once a motion has been reconsidered, it cannot be again reconsidered. A motion to reconsider cannot be reconsidered, neither can a motion to adjourn, the affirmative vote to lay on the table, or to suspend the rules. If the assembly shall have acted upon the requirements of a motion which it has adopted, it cannot reconsider its action.

The motion to reconsider is not amendable, but is debatable whenever the question it seeks to reopen is debatable. Whatever motions of a subsidiary character that are applicable to any other motion are applicable to this. It is a common practice in legislative bodies to move to reconsider the vote by which a bill shall have been passed and then to lay the motion on the table. The affirmative of the last motion has the effect of finally disposing of any attempts to again bring up the matter. It is a method of killing the bill. Whenever debatable, the previous question can be used to suppress debate and bring a vote at once.

Summary.

The appended table will show the relations of all possible motions to the main question. The main

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question when pending, as we have shown, may be influenced by two classes of questions—subsidiary and incidental. The table shows their subdivisions and their relative importance to each other is shown in order, It will be observed that there are four orders of subsidiary questions. Each of superior precedence in the order named. Those of the same order have no precedence one over the other.

Privileged motions, as the name implies, have a privilege over any other business; but when they become the main question, the subsidiary and incidental motions have an application to its disposition.

Whenever the main question becomes affected by the raising of any of the motions set forth in the table, the precedence of the motion is in the order set opposite. The rule for the guidance of any presiding officer is that whatever motion or question has right of way and is related to the main question must first be decided. Thus, for instance, the main question being before an assembly, an amendment might be proposed to which another amendment could be offered. The motion to lay on the table could then be moved; another member might raise a point of order on the propriety of the motion to lay on the table; a question of general or special privilege could be raised and finally a motion to adjourn could be made. All these could be pending at once and must be decided in the reverse order of their proposal. It will be seen how, under such an arrangement, all of which

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is in perfect harmony with the modern parliamentary practice, the main question might not reach a determination until some time had elapsed after its proposal. A reference to the table will show how far all are debatable and amendable.

Motions: Their Precedence and Value.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

Privileged Motions: Always in order.

- I. To adjourn;
  Not debatable, nor amendable and of highest privilege.
- II. To adjourn to a certain day:
  Debatable and amendable. If time not previously fixed with superior precedence over the preceding.
- III. To take a recess:
  Debatable and amendable, unless time has been fixed, when it becomes like a motion to adjourn.
- IV. Questions of general privilege:
  Of privilege over all others.
- V. Questions of personal privilege:
  Of privilege over all others except general privilege.

Subsidiary Motions: Have reference to main question.

- I. Questions of consideration:
  Neither debatable nor amendable.
- II. To lay on the table:
  Neither debatable nor amendable.
- III.
  - To postpone to a certain day.
    Debatable and amendable.
  - Previous question:
    Neither debatable nor amendable.
  - To postpone indefinitely:
    Not amendable; debatable only on the main question.
  - To commit:
    Debatable and amendable.
- IV. To amend:
  Debatable and amendable.

Incidental Questions: Have reference to the main and subsidiary motions.

- I. Questions of order.
- II. Reading of papers.
- III. Withdrawing a motion.
- IV. Suspension of rules.

  Not amendable nor debatable.
- V. Division.
- VI. Ways of consideration.

  Amendable only.

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DEBATE.

The sole object of debate is to arrive at a common opinion upon the subject in hand. This can be obtained by an interchange of opinions. It is evident that the mover of a motion may suggest that which is not approved by all present. The very moment that a subject is suggested, that moment a division of the assembly may become an existing consequent. All may not express themselves. There may be reasons which cause no debate and the subject may receive the approval of all present. If the matter be very important, the debate represents the contest of those who favor the mover and those who are opposed. It is evident that the discussion will involve a deliberate judgment of all present upon those who may oppose, as well as those who may favor the proposition. The aim of the debate is to cause those who may disagree to the proposition to agree; and this is to be effected by argument. It will be observed that in the course of debate the object is not the motives of the mover, but the subject-matter under debate; and while personal criticism is found to be the outgrowth of any debate, there are certain things which those who debate are under obligation to observe.

As to the member: He is to be in order; he has no right to talk while another has the floor; he must be silent and attentive; engage in no other business; throw nothing about the room; refrain from passing between the member speaking and the presiding

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officer; and without the consent of the speaker, refrain from interrupting him while speaking.

The member when speaking must mention no other member's name, but must refer to him with courtesy and dignity by mentioning him as "the gentleman who last spoke" or "as the honorable gentleman from," giving the State or district from whence he comes. In legislative assemblies, such a designation is posslble, but in deliberative bodies of other character, he must be identified only as the gentleman having performed some act which the reference shall clearly point him out as the one referred to. Nor shall the member speaking use terms which are highly improper because of their suggestiveness or because they charge a fellow member with motives of impropriety and dishonor. In speaking, the member shall always keep in mind that it is the subject-matter of the proposition that is to be discussed and not the persons. Hence the old rule, "Avoid personalities in debate" becomes a very excellent one. It is very evident that common sense, common fairness and common decency are the three superlative requirements of successful debate; while the sole object of all debate is to win adherents to the speaker's view of the question at issue.

It has been stated that the presiding officer *per se* has no right to participate in debate. His connection is solely to control the debate so that it shall proceed on orderly lines and fulfil the general as well as implied rules of decorum. Whenever a motion

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has been properly moved, seconded and restated by the Chair, it is ready for debate. Whoever shall first rise is entitled to the floor. Where the subject is important, it is often the case that many may rise. It is a question for the presiding officer to decide to whom he shall award the floor. The practice has grown, as already stated, to regard the presiding officer's decision as final. He is actuated by but one object. Fairness and impartiality are the governing motives in all his decisions. He may have heard Mr. A. first. He may have seen Mr. B. first, and Mr. C., the mover of the motion, may have been the last to have risen and to have been heard, yet he awards to floor to Mr. C. The basis of such a decision, and it is founded on a very good principle, and one generally accepted — that the mover being the one who is most interested in the proposition should be the one to first explain why the action which it contemplates is desired. When the mover does not desire to speak, the presiding officer awards the floor to whomsoever he will, basing his decision on the one whom he shall see first rise. In the succeeding awards of the floor he shall alternate between those who favor and those who oppose the proposition under discussion, and thus bring about the fullest elucidation of the subject. When thus awarded the floor, the member's remarks must be upon the subject at issue. If the main question is under discussion, all his remarks ought to be upon that subject. If it be the amendment, then upon

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whatever the amendment proposes. So long as the subject in hand is being treated by the member speaking, just so long is he secure in his possession of the floor. Any remarks which are not relevant to the discussion are out of order, and for their utterance he may be compelled to take his seat on a technical point of order raised by a fellow member, or by the command of the presiding officer to be in order.

Under certain conditions, and when certain motions are pending, the widest latitude may come into the debate. It would be difficult to state here just what constitutes a member out of order when in debate. Human passions, desire to win in any proposed action, bias of opinion are elements against which the presiding officer has to contend. He controls the debate as to subject matter, and where he possesses judgment, common sense and decision, the debate will bring out what it is desirous the assembly in question shall know.

The prolongation of the debate, all things being equal and no motions having been made to defer or suppress it, is to that extent when all shall have spoken either in favor or to the contrary. It is the right of every member to ventilate his views upon it. Once speaking upon the question is the acknowledge right; but the question of how many more times and how much time are questions which every assembly must regulate for itself.

Generally a member may speak twice on a subject in the ordinary deliberative bodies, and may speak

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again, if all have spoken who wish. In the U. S. House of Representatives, the member is restricted to but one speech on a subject. It will be seen to be a wise precaution in any deliberative assembly to restrict the number and length of time which any member may speak.

The question of whether a member is in order may be largely controlled by his manner of speaking. The language may be uttered in such a tone of voice as to be highly disrespectful to those present, while the subject-matter may be entirely pertinent to the question, but the insinuations which may lurk beneath may reflect very seriously upon the character of some person present. Such a circumstance would be a violation of the dignity of the assembly and would be out of order. Under such circumstance the member could be deprived of the floor by a point of order, or by demanding that the words be taken down. In small assemblies, not of a *quasi* political or legislative character, such a proceeding is not of general usage. The practice of *taking down words*, obtains in legislative bodies, and a simple point of order brings about the needed remedy.

Whenever, in the progress of debate, the presiding officer shall rise, it is the mark of respect for all other persons to seat themselves. This is but a mark of courtesy to the office. A requirement of this sort does not permit the presiding officer to cause a member who has the floor to desist for his benefit. In the course of debate a member may ob-

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tain the floor, not for the purpose of debate, but to propound an inquiry. These inquiries are termed, as already stated, *parliamentary inquiries* or *points of information.* They have no special privilege, but may be addressed to the presiding officer whenever the member so desiring to raise one, can obtain the floor. Their purpose is to elucidate information upon some subject in course of the debate germane to the subject, or to obtain information as to the status of some subsidiary or other motion under process of adjustment, or to produce action which shall dispose of a matter under discussion. They are addressed to the presiding officer and by him answered. They are purely for information and have no binding force on the assembly unless the information thus obtained is put into action by the member. It is then subject to the rules which obtain in such a case.

A member having obtained possession of the floor has it as an absolute possession so long as he is in order. When he shall have concluded his remarks his possession of the floor ceases. He may, however, temporarily yield the floor for an inquiry addressed to himself, or for a motion to adjourn, or to take a recess. His possession of the floor is not invalidated. If the assembly should adjourn his position would be the same when the business thus interrupted should again come up for discussion. These are the only conditions under which he may yield the floor and be entitled to its possession again without further effort on his part.

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Whenever, in the course of debate, the order shall become so objectionable that the presiding officer must call the assembly to order, all business ceases at once. If a member has the floor he must sit down, and no further business is done until the assembly shall be in order, when the member may proceed. It may be stated, as a general rule, that when a member speaking shall be called to order, he is out of order until he shall take his seat and the question of his disorder shall have been settled. In debate, a member's disorder in speech, when called to the presiding officer's attention, does not deprive him of the floor, unless he shall persist in remarks of an irrelevant character.

The right of any assembly to punish its members for disorderly and highly improper behavior in both language and manner is regarded as its prerogative. All rules for the guidance of any deliberative body should be made with such an end in view.

VOTING.

The debate having concluded, the decision of the question is at hand. This is accomplished by a vote. The assembly, in possession of the question by reason of there statement by the Chair, may show its anxiety to vote by calling "Question," in response to the inquiry of the presiding officer, "Is there anything to be said on the question?" It is of frequent occurrence that when a question shall have been debated and the presiding officer may conclude that further

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discussion is not desired, because no one offers to debate, and asks, "Is there anything further to be said on the question?" Such a question is in the nature of a warning that the vote is about to be taken. He may, if he chose, order the main question reread, or if it be an amendment, order the same to be read in conjunction with the main question. It is evident that the right to propose business and to debate upon such propositions carries with it the right to vote. All persons thus entitled are under obligation to vote. The mere fact of physical presence carries with it the right of choice, and unless the member be excused by the presiding officer or the assembly, he must vote.

The methods of voting are various and, in general, they may be stated thus:

I. By sound.

II. By rising or show of hands.

III. By yeas and nays.

Whenever an assembly is ready to vote the presiding officer says: "Those who favor the question (or amendment) please say aye." Then those who favor the question at issue respond by saying, "Aye." The presiding officer then puts the negative side in the same manner and those who are opposed say, "No." By the volume of tone, he judges which prevails and says: "The ayes have it," if by the tone of those favorable, he determines more of those present said "aye" than said "no." He then adds, "The question is carried." This formula of words varies with differing

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presiding officers and the general intent is to allow sufficient time between the taking of those who favor and those who oppose to enable the reply to be given fully and completely. This is voting by sound or *viva voce*, and is the usual method of voting.

If, however, when announcing the decision he may be in doubt or any member shall demand a count, then the vote is taken either by rising or by showing hands.

In such a case the presiding officer says, "Those who favor rise," or he may say, "Those who favor raise your hand." Then those who favor rise and remain standing until counted, which the Chair proceeds to do. Having counted them, he requests them to be seated. He then addresses the same question in proper form to those who are opposed. They rise and the presiding officer proceeds to count, which fact having been accomplished, he requests them to be seated. He then announces the result and decides the passage of the motion, if more rise who were favorable; the failure, if the opposite be true.

The methods of effecting this vote on a motion are various. In some cases those who favor are required to stand on one side of the room, while those who oppose on the other side. In some other cases two tellers are appointed who, taking a station opposite each other, permit all those who favor the motion to pass between them in one direction and then those who are opposed in an opposite direction. The tellers count those who thus pass, and comparing their

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results, if they agree, report to the presiding officer, who in turn announces the result to the assembly.

In bodies of a legislative character where a record of votes is kept, the system of voting by yeas and nays obtains. It can be demanded by any member, and is ordered if a majority concur. When so ordered the clerk calls each member's name, who must vote if present unless excused by the assembly. The yea or nay reply of the member is entered in the appropriate column opposite his name on the paper from which the clerk is reading the names. When all the names are called, the clerk recalls the names of those who have failed to reply. On the conclusion of this he reads the names of those who have voted "yea" and those who have voted "nay" and also the list of those who are absent, and reports the total result to the presiding officer, who thereupon declares the result. A call of the yeas and nays once begun cannot be interrupted and must proceed to a finish.

The right of the presiding officer to vote when a member of the body is unquestioned. If, however, he be not a member his privilege to vote obtains when there is a tie. Such a vote on his part is known as the *casting vote*. He may refrain from voting, in which case the motion is lost.

Until the result of a vote is decided, that is until the negative of a question is taken by the presiding officer, the question is still open for amendment and debate. The negative taken, the only method of reopening the subject is by reconsideration.

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Elections.

The selection of the officers of any deliberative body in its temporary organization is usually by the *viva voce* method of choice. When, however, the organization is perfected and its procedure is adopted, the election is by ballot.

The election of officers, unless provided for by the order of business, is arranged for by a formal motion to proceed to an election. The affirmative of this motion presents the whole matter of election to the disposal of the assembly. It is always proper to take the highest office first, the presiding officer calling for nominations for that office. The names having been presented and seconded, though this latter matter is one of custom rather than rule, the Chair names two or more persons who act as tellers. These persons supervise the election, count the ballots and report the result to the presiding officer.

When the ballots have all been cast, the presiding officer gives warning of the closing of the polls, and then declares them closed. The report of the tellers must state the number of ballots cast, the number necessary to a choice, which must be a majority, the names of those balloted for and the number each received.

The person who receives the majority, if there be but one, is declared elected by the presiding officer. In the event of no person receiving a majority, the balloting must be repeated in like manner till an election shall be had.

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It is the right of each member to vote once in each balloting. He is not restricted in his choice, but usually those nominated are the ones for whom the ballots should be cast.

In some assemblies a nominating committee is appointed which reports to the assembly the names of those whom it regards as suitable for the offices to be filled. The report becomes subject to the rules of the assembly and may be amended or disagreed to or recommitted. When adopted, it becomes the action of the assembly and the officers so nominated are elected.

Frequently when but one nomination is made, some person is, by motion, authorized to cast a unanimous ballot for the person so nominated. The unanimous passage of this motion delegates the power of ballot to the one so appointed. This formal act of vote elects the nominee to the office.

The principle of all elections, as, indeed, it is the principle of all deliberative bodies, is that a majority shall denote the will of the assembly.

Committees.

Whenever a deliberative body desires information upon a subject, which, because of its nature, it cannot readily obtain in its capacity as an assembly, it delegates its work to a portion of its membership. The portion of the assembly thus charged with the duty of assisting the main body is called a *committee.* It will be seen that in large assemblies, or even in

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any kind of a delibrative body, there are questions of importance which could not be readily investigated by the whole assembly, except at the expense of great losses of time. There would be other matters which ought to occupy the assembly's time. The delegation of this work of investigation insures a thoroughness which could not possibly come with the original body. This process of referring a subject to a committee secures when the subject shall again come up for discussion and possible passage, a few persons whose knowledge of the subject at issue would be so complete that many errors of judgment could then be avoided. Some one has wisely said, "What is everbody's business is nobody's business." The creation of a committee is in order that the business in hand may be somebody's business.

Every deliberative body may possess committees of two kinds, *standing* and *special*. As their names signify, they are either those which continue during a stated interval or are of temporary and specific designation.

In all legislative bodies these standing committees are provided for by the rules, and their specific duties are carefully outlined. The special committees are created as the occasion may demand. In addition to these, there are committees which exist because of the intimate relations existing between the upper and lower houses of legislation. These are called joint and conference committees.

A committee which has a peculiar relation to the

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legislative body to which it belongs is called the Committee of the Whole, and as its name signifies, is the entire legislative body. It is of curious origin and relates to that time in English history when the speaker of the House of Commons, being the ally of an arbitrary king, sought to reveal whatever the members said that might be derogatory to the monarch. This form of committee enabled the House to dismiss the speaker from its presence, and under the presidency of one of its own members, transact its business in secrecy.

A standing committee performs the duties which are delegated to it by the rules, and it is usual to refer all matters which belong to the subject over which it has charge to it for investigation and report.

Special committees are the creation of the assembly to satisfy special needs. Thus, a subject may be proposed which cannot be investigated by any standing committee. In order to such an end, a special committee is created.

All committees are the servants of the assembly proper. They exist by its command and perform only such work as the assembly directs. The appointment of a committee may be the result of one of several methods. It may be given absolute power not only to investigate and report, but it may be required to effect the action of the assembly itself. The work of a committee is only limited by its instructions. If these are not sufficient to meet the demands of the investigation committed to its care,

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the assembly can give a power equal to whatever may be the possession of the assembly itself. Hence investigating committees of a legislative body have power to summon witnesses and to punish in the event of a refusal to do what the committee directs.

The appointment of a committee is either by the presiding officer, by resolution, by vote on nomination, or by ballot.

Whenever a member desires a committee appointed, he may specify in his motion either the number and the manner of selection, or both. He may also define the duties which he desires the committee to perform.

Whenever no such provision obtains, the assembly must settle the matter both as to the number and manner of selection.

The number is usually an odd number, and wisely so, in order that there may be a majority either one way or the other in its final judgment. When the appointment is left either by consent or direction to the presiding officer, he, having no right to perform this task unless so directed, appoints the committee, exercising his judgment as to whom shall be the members. It has become the custom for the mover and seconder of a motion to be made members of the committee. This is not obligatory upon the presiding officer. His judgment is relied upon in such a matter. In a political assembly he is expected to appoint a majority from the prevailing party sentiment. The same is true of a legislative body. In

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other assemblies, those favorable to the matter of having the subject thus investigated by committee, are preferred to those who oppose upon the general theory that those who are opposed to a measure could not give it a favorable consideration, and thus a complete investigation is insured when committed to the hands of its friends.

In the lower houses of legislation, the speaker always appoints the standing committees; but in the upper houses the presiding officer, not being a member, the selection of the committee is made either by the president *pro tem.* or by the house itself.

Should the resolution state the names of those who are to constitute the committee, then the passage of the resolution creates the committee. If the resolution leaves the names and number blank, then it is the province of the assembly, on the passage of the resolution creating the committee, to proceed to nominate those who are to serve on the committee. The members are nominated by some fellow member and when so nominated the presiding officer presents each name for vote by the entire assembly. It may be here stated that any one of these methods subserves the purpose and neither may be said to possess any special advantage. The appointment of a committee by ballot is open to the objection of the time which it must consume. As its name implies, it is by formal ballot. Each name or a set of names being voted for at one time.

The committee appointed, the next proceeding is

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to begin the task which is set for it to perform. The preliminary work requires organization. For this purpose it must have a chairman. Usually the person first named acts as chairman, though the assembly may designate the chairman or the committee may elect its own. If the rules provide for a clerk, it is ready for business whenever it meets. The absence of a provision for a clerk requires that a member of the committee shall act as recording officer. The times and places of meeting are the province of the committee, although this may be left to the chairman. No committee can be said to be in session unless every member has been notified of the time and place of meeting, and no business can properly be performed unless a quorum of the committee be present. A quorum is always a majority of the committee.

In general, it may be stated that whatever is in order in the assembly itself is in order in the committee. The same rules which govern the assembly are for the government of the committee so far as they are applicable. Its officers perform similar duties as in the assembly and by the mouth of the chairman, it communicates with it.

In the transaction of its business it may require the views of those who have no connection with the body to which it belongs, and hence it may hold public meetings at which it receives the needed advice and information. In all ordinary assemblies the committees are for the purpose of aiding in giving more specific knowledge. If a faulty resolution be

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submitted to it, or if it be required to prepare a resolution, the subject matter is carefully gone over, amendments are suggested and the best judgment of the committee is exercised to perfect what is sent for correction. Whatever papers are transmitted are to be returned to the custody of the proper officer in the same shape they were received. A committee's work is not final, but only advisory.

Whatever the conclusion of a committee, it is the concensus of a majority. Those who disagree from the opinion of the majority have no standing before the parent body. It is only by courtesy that they can be heard as such, and this privilege is rarely refused.

The finished work of a committee is called a REPORT. In the process of its deliberations, it may reach conclusions which may not represent complete knowledge on the subject, but which shall be such as the assembly may need. In such cases it makes partial reports and these are said to denote progress.

Reports are always in writing and are presented by the chairman. They have always a formal beginning and are addressed to the organization of which the committee is a part. The following may illustrate:

"*Your committee to whom was referred the subject of bonding the town of Oakdale, for the benefit of a fund to build a new Town Hall, respectfully presents the following report:*"

After the formal introduction, follows the conclu-

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sion which the committee has reached. Whoever agrees with the conclusions signs this report, but such a report must be signed by a majority of the committee.

The presentation of a report does not necessarily require its acceptance. There is in all assemblies a distinction between its acceptance and adoption.

In all legislative bodies, the report of a committee when presented may be prevented from being made the subject of comment or of original action, by raising the question of consideration. The mere presentation of a report is, in substance, like the main question, and by all the methods of parliamentary practice may be prevented from being considered. In other deliberative bodies, a report may be received by formal motion to receive. When so received the work of the committee is done. When presented and received it is the property of the assembly and must be read. If the assembly so desire, it may have the minority report, if there be one, read as well. Whenever a report is received it is not the action of the body, nor does it confirm it, nor does the question of its confimation arise until a formal motion to adopt the report shall have been made. Such a motion opens up the whole subject and brings the report before the assembly as a main question, to be treated accordingly. The relation which the committee sustains to the report is that of being favorable to its passage. If the assembly shall not be satisfied with it, it may substitute the

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minority report for it, or it may again charge the committee with its further correction. The question of whether, in the case of a report of a special committee, its reception discharges the committee, the writer is of the opinion that it does. Its work is done if it be a final report. It is to do a certain work. That being accomplished, its work ceases when the report shall have been received, and at that moment it ceases to exist unless revived by a motion to recommit. Hence, a motion to receive a report and discharge the committee is an error as to its last provision.

Whenever the report of a committee shall contain several paragraphs, such, for instance, as the report of a committee on by-laws, wherein the rules are submitted in paragraphs, it is usual for the assembly to consider the motion to adopt the report in sections. Each paragraph being read and adopted, and then, when all the paragraphs have been adopted, to adopt the report as a whole.

The use of the Committee of the Whole is of such rare occurrence in ordinary assemblies that a detailed discussion is out of place here. Its use is valuable in the discussion of subjects wherein a wide range of subjects is under debate.

As its name implies, it is the committee wherein the whole assembly acts. The difference being that some member present, on the direction of the presiding officer, takes the chair and becomes the chairman. The assembly, on motion, resolves itself into

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the Committee of the Whole. The difference in procedure between the assembly and this committee is that the rules which apply to the assembly apply to the Committee of the Whole, except that, in general, a member may speak as often as he can get the floor and debate cannot be deferred or suppressed by any of the rules usually applicable. The committee cannot adjourn, but when ready to cease from its labors, it, by formal motion, rises and reports to the presiding officer by its chairman the work which it performed. Its report has the same standing as any other.

General Suggestions.

In what has preceded, it has been the intention to describe as fully as might be the general provision of parliamentary law as held in the American practice to be the generally accepted usage. As in common law, whatever is not specifically directed by statute is held to be of binding force, so here whatever is not provided for by special rules, the general parliamentary practice is made the basis of decision.

All deliberative bodies provide a code of rules based upon the general provisions of the parliamentary practice. In legislative bodies, these are known as rules. In other assemblies, they are called by-laws. They define specifically the rules for the government of the body and set in order the precedence of motions of whatever character. They also provide

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what shall be the quorum and in what order the business of the assembly shall proceed.

Many assemblies may desire to know an order for the transaction of their business and what may be regarded as a basis for any assembly is herewith given:

I. The calling to order by the president when a quorum shall be present.

II. Reading of the minutes of the last meeting, their correction and approval.

III. Communications of all sorts, whether from committees or from those who have a right to inform the assembly in this manner.

IV. New business.

V. Unfinished business: to be taken up at the point discontinued at the last session.

VI. Adjournment. Always to the next regular meeting time unless by some other arrangement a different time is set.

It will be seen that this takes in all the possible business which can come before any ordinary assembly.

The dispatch of the business under such an arrangement will require that an adjustment of the motions which have privilege shall be effected. In the table given, the arrangement is under the operations of general parliamentary law.

The motions to adjourn, to lay on the table, to postpone indefinitely, the previous question, to take a recess, to commit and to postpone to a certain day are capable of infinite arrangement.

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In the table given their order is as follows:

I. To adjourn,
II. To lay on the table.
III. The previous question.
IV. To postpone to a certain day.
V. To commit.
VI. To postpone indefinitely.
VII. To amend.

It will be found advisable in preparing a set of rules for the guidance of an assembly, to prepare them with reference to some standard work on parlimentary practice. If based upon such a foundation, this becomes the final arbiter in case of a dispute as to the meaning of the rules. It is a frequent usage for the rules which obtain in the lower house of the State Legislature to be thus made the basis upon which the by-laws are prepared. Special assemblies require special rules, and so, while this simple treatise may give the general practice, it can only serve as a guide to those who desire to inform themselves upon this very wide, but none the less useful subject.

In houses of legislation, the decisions of a competent presiding officer are made the bases of future decisions and, as remarked in the beginning of this treatise, the power of such a precedent in the determination of disputed points, is very strong indeed.



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Engraved for Practical Book for Practical People.

James K. McManning.

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Things You Should Know.

By JAMES H. MANNING.

THIS is preëminently the business age. Never before have commercial schemes and undertakings assumed such vast proportions. Never before has the spirit of business permeated every avenue and relation of life as it does to-day.

Business is King, and the man of affairs, is to-day the moving figure on the world's stage.

He has reduced commercial interests to a science and has so advanced competition that high pressure is the rule, and unremitting watchfulness the price not only of success but also of self-protection.

Every one is sooner or later swept into relations with this modern spirit of business.

The day has gone by when man or women can, without inevitable disaster, disregard the necessity for sufficient knowledge of how to transact ordinary business affairs.

The constantly enlarging sphere of women in modern days is making it increasingly important for them as well as for men, to understand the forms and the processes of commercial life.

In the following pages the most important and

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the most commonly used of these forms are given, and in brief and ordinary language is also given a comprehensive explanation of the technical terms used in commercial law and in ordinary business affairs, to which is added a chapter on the wrong use of words. Among the subjects treated of are banking, including checks and promissory notes, days of grace in the different States, demand, payments, protest, guaranty and the presumptions of law, partnership, including the relations and powers of partners, articles of partnership and dissolution of the relation. Special attention has been paid to the essentials of Contracts and to the requirements of the Statute of Frauds.

Agency, special and general, powers of attorney, wills, duties of executors, deeds, and the rights of married women are also important matters, which are here explained. The last mentioned subject is of especial importance to women, and includes the provisions of law in force in the several States of the Union in respect to this subject.

The experienced man of affairs will find these pages a convenient reference as to many points which he is apt to forget, and the novice will find herein an introduction to all the ordinary terms and transactions of business life.

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COMMERCIAL LAW AND FORMS.

AGENCY.

"Whatever business a man may do, he may employ another man to do for him." An agency may exist by *Implication*, *Verbally*, or by *Writings*.

By *implication* when the acts and words lead people in general to believe that the agency exists.

Verbally, whenever there is only the verbal agreement between the parties. A verbal agency permits the agent to make a contract even in cases where the contract must be in writing.

By writings, as notes, memoranda or formal instruments under seal.

The *authority* conveyed must be equal to the deed to be performed. The instrument of agency must be under seal when the conveyance requires a seal. When the business to be transacted does not require a seal, the instrument of agency need not be under seal.

Kinds.— General agents; special agents; professional agents.

A *general agent* is empowered to transact all the business of a particular kind. He may bind his principal, generally, with innocent parties so long as he keeps within the apparent scope of his authority, even if he exceeds *private* instructions.

A *special agent* is one invested with limited powers for the performance of some especial business. He cannot bind his principal whenever he exceeds his

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authority. Who deals with a special agent, deals at his peril when the agent passes the limit of his power.

Professional agents; as attorneys, brokers, captains, auctioneers, factors, etc., are usually licensed by competent authority to transact a particular kind of business.

They are invested with ample power and the law holds them responsible for the proper performance of their duties.

Liabilities of Principal. — Private instructions to a general agent do not avoid the principal's liability to innocent parties. A principal is responsible for fraud on the part of the agent, if committed while transacting his business. A principal is not bound by the acts of a special agent who exceeds his authority. A principal is not generally liable for the willful wrong done by his agent.

Forms of Powers of Attorney.

Know all men by these presents: That I, A. B., of ....., have made, constituted, and appointed, and by these presents do make, constitute, and appoint B. C., of ....., my true and lawful attorney, for me and in my name and stead (state purpose for which issued), giving and granting to my said attorney by these presents, full power and authority to do and perform all and every act and thing necessary to be done in and about the premises, as fully to all intents and purposes as I might or could do if personally present, hereby ratifying and confirming all

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that my said attorney shall lawfully do or cause to be done by virtue hereof.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this ..... day of ....., A. D. 189..

A. B. [L. S.]

Sealed and delivered in the presence of B. C.

Married women, lunatics, and minors, in general, are disqualified from appointing agents, but a married woman in the State of New York, if over twenty-one years, may appoint an agent the same as though unmarried. A minor may authorize an agent to perform an act that is to his advantage, but not that is to his prejudice.

DEEDS.

The grantor is the person who makes the conveyance and the grantee is the person who receives the conveyance.

A deed, being a contract, has the same essentials. (See contracts.) In most states married women may convey real estate which they own in their own right. A partner cannot convey real estate belonging to the firm unless empowered by special authority from the partners to do so.

Consideration.—A sufficient consideration is necessary to a valid deed. (See consideration under contracts.)

Subject-matter.—The description of the land and its boundaries should be extremely accurate. The

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usual words of the transfer are "give, grant, sell and convey," though any others conveying the same idea could be used. Land sold without reserving any crops at that time growing on it, conveys the crops or everything attached to the land. When a building is sold it conveys everything that belongs to it. The words "heirs and assigns" are necessary in some States to convey an unconditional title.

Forms of Deeds.

Deed with full covenants. (New York Laws of 1890.

This indenture, made the .. day of ...., in the year ...., between A. B., of .... (give occupation and residence), of the first part, and C. D., of ...., (occupation and residence), of the second part.

Witnesseth: That the said party of the first part, in consideration of .... dollars, lawful money of the United States, paid by the party of the second part, doth hereby grant and release unto the said party of the second part, his heirs and assigns forever (here describe property), together with the appurtenances and all the estate and rights of the party of the first part in and to the said premises.

To have and to hold the above granted premises unto the said party of the second part, his heirs and assigns forever.

And the said party of the first part, doth covenant with said party of the second part, as follows:

First. That the party of the first part is seized of

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the said premises in fee simple, and has good right to convey the same.

Second. That the party of the second part shall quietly enjoy the said premises.

Third. That the said premises are free from incumbrance.

Fourth. That the party of the first part will execute or procure any further necessary assurance of the title to said premises.

Fifth. That the party of the first part will forever warrant the title of said premises.

In witness whereof, the said party of the first part hath hereunto set his hand and seal the day and year first above written. A. B.

In the presence of, [L. S.]

B. C.

Acknowledgment for the above.

STATE OF NEW YORK, } *ss.:*
County of ..... }

On this .. day of ...., in the year ...., before me, the subscriber, personally came A. B. (and C. B., his wife), to me known to be the person (or persons) described in and who executed the within instrument, and (severally) acknowledged that he (or they) executed the same. J. A.,

(Give official title.)

New York:—"Every conveyance unless recorded is void against a subsequent purchaser in good faith, whose conveyance shall be first duly recorded. To

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entitle a conveyance to be recorded it must be acknowledged by the party or parties executing the same, or shall be proved by a subscribing witness." "The acknowledgment of married women may be made, taken and certified in the same manner as if they were sole."

Ohio: — All deeds, mortgages, etc., executed within the State of Ohio must be signed by the grantor and acknowledged before two attesting witnesses, and the said grantor must also acknowledge the same before a judge of the court of record of that State or some other competent authority.

(Laws of Ohio, 1890.)

STATE OF OHIO, }
County of ...., } *ss.*:

Be it remembered that on this .. day of ...., 189.., before me, the subscriber, a (give official title), in and for the said county, came A. B., and C. B., his wife, the grantors in the foregoing instrument, and acknowledged the signing thereof to be their voluntary act and deed for the uses and purposes therein mentioned. And the said C. B., wife of the said A. B., being examined by me separate and apart from her said husband, and the contents of the said instrument being by me made known and explained to her as the statute directs, declared that she did voluntarily sign and acknowledge the same and that she is still satisfied therewith as her act and deed.

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In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and affixed my official seal, the day and year [L. S.] last above written.

(Signature and title.)

The following States require no separate examination in acknowledgments by husband and wife: Connecticut, the Dakotas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, Wisconsin, Wyoming and Washington.

The following States require a separate examination: Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Idaho; Kentucky, Nevada, New Jersey, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas.

COMMON CARRIERS.

A common carrier is one who, for a compensation, carries the goods of whosever offers, as a regular business.

Carrier's Obligations.—He must take all goods offered, unless of a dangerous kind. He must charge one person no higher rates than another. He must take such care of the goods as a prudent man would of his own. He must carry them by the usual route and make a proper delivery of them. He must place the goods in a proper place and give notice of their arrival.

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Carrier's Liabilities.—In common law they are liable for all losses "except those occasioned by the act of God or the acts of the public enemy." He is responsible for losses by theft, robbery, etc.

Railroad companies are responsible as carriers to parties sending goods by express over their lines, irrespective of the said parties' contract with the express company.

A carrier's liability begins as soon as he has accepted the goods. It ends as soon as he has carried them to their destination and has deposited them there.

The notices on their receipts whereby they seek to avoid all responsibility, are "no evidence of assent on the part of the owner," and the liability cannot be avoided that way. He may avoid almost anything by making a special contract.

He might avoid liability by notice if he could prove that the shipper had read his notice or was familiar with its terms, though there is some question about this in New York at least.

Carriers of Passengers.—They are bound to make use of all ordinary methods for the safety of their passengers. They must employ proper vehicles and competent servants. In general, they are bound to run trains on their advertised time. They are liable to passengers for the misconduct of their servants. If any person is injured through their negligence, they are liable not only for the damage that person has received, but for *prospective* damage as well. He

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is an insurer of his passengers' baggage. He is liable for such baggage as his passengers carry for their own personal use. He cannot avoid liability by notices, as a notice is no evidence of the assent of the owner of the baggage. The carrier may avoid liability to some extent by a special contract.

They must take each person who tenders the price of transportation and wishes to be carried. They are not obliged to take disorderly or persons of doubtful character, or those afflicted with some contagious disease. They are not responsible to their passengers for accidents where all skill and diligence has been employed. Passengers are required to submit to all reasonable rules and regulations, to show their tickets whenever asked, and to surrender their tickets whenever required.

CURRENCY.

The National Bank Act fixes the capital required to establish a National Bank as follows: Towns of less than 6,000 inhabitants, a capital of not less than $50,000; towns of from 6,000 to 50,000, a capital of not less than $100,000; in towns of over 50,000, at least $200,000 will be required.

Each bank must deposit with the Treasurer at Washington, government bonds to the extent of at least one-third its capital, as security for the notes of the bank. The government then issues to the bank, ninety per cent. in notes, which, when properly filled and signed, constitute the circulation of the bank.

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Such banks are required to keep on hand at least twenty-five per cent in legal tender of its circulation and deposits.

The notes of such banks are secured to the holders, but depositors run the same risk of loss as with other banks.

CHECKS.

A check is an order to a bank to pay the holder a certain sum of money on presentation and without days of grace.

A check, as in the case of a promissory note, may or may not be negotiable according to the way it is drawn.

A check given is no payment of a debt unless paid when presented.

Payment of a check may be stopped at any time before it is presented if notice is given the bank.

Every indorser of a check is liable to each following indorser as in the case of promissory notes, but for no longer time than he would have been held had he been the maker of the check.

Certificates of Deposit partake of the nature of certified checks and are used when money is deposited for a short time and no regular bank account opened.

When wishing to draw your money in person, draw the check payable to "Self" or "Cash."

Write the amount of the check both in words and figures, taking care that no blank spaces are left that could be filled to "raise" the amount of the check.

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Indorsements.— The *left-hand end* of a check is the *top*.

Write the indorsement across the back, a short distance from the top.

If your name has been improperly spelled in the body of the check, indorse it exactly as written therein, then below write your name properly.

If titles are used in the body of the check, they must appear with the name in the indorsement.

In drawing a check payable to one not known at the bank you can avoid the necessity of identification by having him indorse it in your presence and you write under it, "Above indorsement correct" and sign your name.

Checks that are to be deposited are usually indorsed, "For deposit," or "For deposit to the credit of," and such indorsements may be made by clerks and the checks deposited to the credit of their firm. For further reference see indorsements of promissory notes.

NOTES.

A promissory note is an unconditional promise in writing, to pay a certain person a certain sum of money at a certain future time. The essentials are that it be certainly paid, not out of any particular fund, nor dependent upon any contingency; that it be for the payment of money only.

Five important points of a negotiable promissory note are: (1) That the date of payment be specified.

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(2) That the amount be plainly stated. (3) That it be paid only in lawful money. (4) That the promise be without conditions. (5) That it contain the words "order" or "bearer," or other words showing the intention to make it negotiable.

Indorsement: A note is indorsed when any thing relating to it is written upon the back. The writer of the name is called the *indorser*, and the person for whose benefit it is written is the *indorsee.*

There are five kinds of indorsements: (1) *In full.* (2) *In blank.* (3) *Conditional.* (4) *Qualified.* (5) *Restrictive.*

1. *In full:* When the name of the indorsee is mentioned, when none but he can demand payment. If he wishes to transfer it he must add his own indorsement in writing. This is the usual form and shows through what hands it passes.

2. *In blank:* Indorsement in blank consists of the indorser's name alone. It is then payable to bearer, and is transferred by simple delivery from hand to hand. The indorser in full or in blank is obligated to any subsequent holder if the maker does not pay it and the indorser is given due notice of such failure.

3. *Conditional:* When the payment is made conditional upon some uncertain event.

4. *Qualified:* When the usual form is departed from and the indorser restrains, limits, or enlarges his liability as such.

An indorsement "without recourse to me" trans-

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fers the title and releases the indorser from any liability. The exact words used do not matter if they show the intention to avoid responsibility.

When acting for another party the words "agent," "attorney," or their equivalent will release, if added to the indorsement, the said agent from personal responsibility.

5. *Restrictive:* When the indorsement restrains the negotiability to some certain person as, "Pay to John Doe only," or, "Pay John Doe for my account."

Transfer: An indorsement to *bearer* is transferred by delivery; or, if indorsed *in blank*, it can be done in the same way by the indorsee, though drawn payable to *order*.

1. *Before maturity* an innocent purchaser can enforce the collection of a note, even if it be found to have been lost, stolen, or obtained by fraud. Five things are necessary: (1) That he obtained it in good faith. (2) That he was not aware of any defect in the title of the one from whom he obtained it. (3) That it be negotiable. (4) That it was obtained for value. (5) That it was obtained *before maturity*. Should he be aware of any defect in the title at the time of obtaining it, he takes it subject to any defense that could be legally brought against it at first.

2. *After maturity:* A note may still be negotiable, but the purchaser now takes it subject to any defense originally existing.

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Days of Grace.—These are called "days of grace," because they were formerly allowed as a matter of favor; they have at last come to be recognized as a right in nearly all cases. The statutes of the different States may vary from the "law merchant" relating to classes of paper on which grace is to be allowed. The general law is, that when the last day of grace falls upon Sunday or a legal holiday, the demand must be made on the preceding secular day. Pennsylvania, Maine and Georgia allow the demand to be made on the succeeding secular day. Days of grace have been abolished in New York.

In Pennsylvania, when the last day of grace falls upon Good Friday—there a holiday—the demand must be made the following Monday, since Saturday is also a holiday there, so far as demand of payment is concerned.

Demand.—No demand is necessary to hold the maker. For the purpose of holding those *conditionally* liable, a demand must be made first on those *primarily* liable.

1. Notes should be presented for payment by the holder or his authorized agent.

2. Demand should be made on the maker, or, in his absence, on his authorized agent.

3. To hold indorser, the demand must be made on the very day of maturity, no sooner, no later.

4. If no place of payment is specified in the note, it must be presented at the residence or place of business of the maker, and *during regular business*

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hours. A personal demand is not necessary when the place of payment is specified. It is sufficient if the note be sent there in due time.

Law of Place. — When given in one State and payable in another, it will be governed by the laws of the State where payable, in the matter of interest, if the rate is not mentioned. The "law merchant" is, that the maker is bound by the laws of the place where made; the indorser by the law where indorsed; demand, days of grace, etc., by the laws where payable.

Payment. — Possession is presumptive evidence of title on paper drawn or indorsed, payable to bearer, and payment may be made to the one presenting it. Before paying, the maker should be careful that any indorsements are genuine, and that the title is properly transferred. Payment by an indorser satisfies only so far as the subsequent indorsers are concerned, for the note is not discharged until paid by the maker. After an indorser has paid a dishonored note, he may put it in circulation again.

The holder takes his title from the *first* indorser if made in blank or is a general indorsement, and the maker is protected in making payment to him.

Non-payment. — If the only parties concerned are the *original ones*, demand need not be made at maturity. The whole object of demand, protest, and notice of non-payment is to hold the indorsers or others conditionally liable.

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Protest.— A protest is a formal statement made by a notary public, giving a copy or description of the note, stating that payment has been demanded and refused, giving reason of refusal, if any, and the purpose and object of the protest. The protest must be made by the notary *personally*, and duly signed and sealed.

Notice.— 1. Notice should be given by the holder or some suitable person authorized to act for him. The notary may do this.

2. Notices must be served on all whom the holder wishes to make responsible for the payment. He may notify all prior parties, or only the immediate indorser, as he may wish. Each indorser should protect his own interests by notifying all parties responsible to him. Indorsers are liable, in order of their respective indorsements, to each subsequent indorser.

3. Due diligence must be exercised in giving the notice. It is best to give it the same day, but if the dishonor occurs Saturday or immediately preceding a holiday, it will be in time if given the succeeding secular day. Certain obstacles, as war, prevalence of a contagious disease, floods, or act of Providence, will be accepted as legal excuses for want of notice.

4. Any place will do, if given personally. Notice in writing may be left at the place of business or at the house of the persen to be notified. When the person resides at a distance he may be notified by a

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letter properly addressed and mailed to the office where he receives his letters.

5. The notice may be either verbal or written, and any form that clearly conveys the idea intended will be sufficient. The note should be clearly described. It is well described when its maker, payee, date, amount, and time and place of payment are named.

Personal notice must be given when the holder and person to be notified live in the same place, unless the laws of the State do not require it. In New York and many other States written notice properly addressed and mailed is sufficient.

Notice of Protest.

$587.00.

SECOND NATIONAL BANK, Utica, N. Y., *June* 23, 1894.

Take notice that the promissory note made by C. M. Taylor for $587 and interest, dated October 2, 1893, payable to your order at this bank, payable this day and indorsed by you, is protested for non-payment, and the holder, J. B. Morrow, looks to you for the payment thereof, payment of the same having this day been demanded and refused.

Respectfully yours,

H. K. LONG,
Notary Public.

To J. L. BROWNE.

The indorser may waive demand of payment, notice of protest, etc., at the time of the indorsement, or even at any time before maturity. The following is the

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usual form: "I hereby waive demand, protest, and notice of dishonor." (Signed) ——— ———.

Guaranty.— Guaranties are of two kinds, guaranty of payment and guaranty of collection.

1. Guaranty of payment absolutely guarantees that the note shall be paid at maturity.

2. Guaranty of collection holds the guarantor after the holder has failed to collect of the maker.

The general rule is that the guarantor is not entitled to demand and notice of protest. The following is the usual form. "For value received I hereby guaranty the payment (or collection) of the within note." (Signed) JOHN F. HERRICK.

Defenses.— 1. Want of consideration, if total, is a perfect defense. If it is only a partial failure it will defeat recovery only to that extent.

2. Obtained through fear or compulsion. The threats and duress must be such as would cause a person of ordinary firmness of mind to apprehend danger to himself, reputation, or property.

3. Fraud. Fraud vitiates all contracts.

4. Obtained by finding or theft. This is no defense against a *bona fide* and innocent purchaser who obtains the note *before* maturity and gives a valuable consideration for it.

5. Illegal consideration. A note illegal on its face gives warning to all. A note showing on its face that it called for more than the legal rate of interest would be subject to such defense.

Notes given for "debts of honor" are void be-

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tween original parties, but if indorsed and negotiated, the first indorser would be holden.

Presumptions.— 1. The law presumes that the negotiable paper was given for a consideration, whether expressed or not. The contrary must be proven to constitute a defense.

2. The holder is presumed to be the owner.

3. Indorsements and transfers are presumed to be made before the paper became due.

4. The law presumes the holder to have acquired the paper in the the usual course of business.

5. It is conclusively presumed that the paper means precisely what it says and parol evidence will not be allowed to offset it.

A note given by a lunatic, an intoxicated person or a minor, is void.

A note given by one who cannot write should be witnessed by an uninterested person.

A person receiving a note, knowing it to be defective, has no better title than the person from whom he purchased.

A note as a gift, being without consideration, is voidable.

If the holder of a note extends the time of payment to the maker, his action releases all persons conditionally liable.

In a note containing "*we promise*" or "*we jointly promise*," the liability is a joint one, and all must be sued; "*we or either of us promise*," or "*we jointly*

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and severally promise," here the liability is both joint and several and either or all the parties may be sued.

In a note containing "*I promise*" and signed by two or more persons, each signer is obligated for the whole amount, and either or all may be sued.

After becoming of age a minor may ratify a note given during his minority.

Forms of Indorsements.

(In blank.)
John A. Roberts.

(In full.)
Pay to the order of Henry A. James.
John A. Roberts.

(Qualified indorsement.)
Without recourse to me.
John A. Roberts.

(Restrictive indorsement.)
Pay to the order of Henry A. James only.
John A. Roberts.

(Receipt for money.)
June 1, 1895.
Received on the within note $50.00.

Judgment Note.

425\frac{25}{100}$.

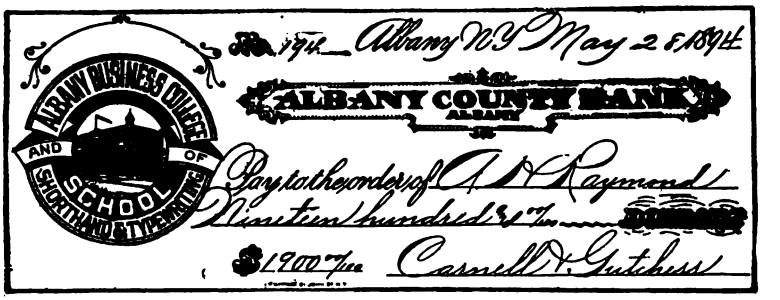
For value received, I promise to pay to John Doe, or order, Four Hundred Twenty-five and 25|100 *dollars* ($425.25), *three months after date; and I here nominate, constitute, and appoint the said John Doe, or any attorney at law of this State, my true and lawful attorney, for me and in my name to appear at any court of record of this State, at any time after the above promissory note becomes due, and to waive all processes and services thereof, and to confess judgment in favor of the holder herein, for the sum that may be due and owing hereon, with interest and costs and waiving all errors.*

In Witness Whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal at Williamsport, Pa., this first day of June, 1895.

Richard Roe.

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Check—Usual Form.



Draft.



Promissory Note.

$ 300 7/100 Chicago, Ill., March 2 1894

Ten days after date, I promise to pay to the order of Carnell & Gutchess

Three hundred 7/100 Dollars,

value received

No. 49 Due 3/15/94 John King

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New York Form of Married Woman's Note.

$25.00. *Albany, N. Y., June* 1, 1895.

For value received, I promise to pay to John Doe, or order, Twenty-five dollars ($25.00), *one year from date, with interest. And I hereby charge my separate estate with the payment of this note.*

Helen Gladstone.

Joint and Several Note.

$100.00. *Albany, N. Y., June* 1, 1895.

Three months after date we jointly and severally promise to pay ——— ———, *or bearer, One Hundred dollars* ($100.00), *value received.*

A. B.

C. D.

Certificate of Deposit.

CENTRAL NATIONAL BANK.

Troy, N. Y., June 1, 1895.

This is to certify that H. J. Moses has deposited in this bank One Thousand dollars ($1,000.00), *payable to his order on return of this certificate, properly indorsed.*

R. W. Greenman,
Cashier

CONTRACTS.

A contract is, "an agreement for a suitable consideration to do or not to do a certain thing."

The essentials of a contract are: 1. *The Parties;* 2. *Consideration;* 3. *Subject-matter;* 4. *Assent;* 5. *Time.* These are essential and the other elements are those that give to the contract its particular character.

1. **The Parties.**— The parties must be competent. A contract with a minor is not binding upon him for anything except necessaries, though he may hold the other party to a strict accounting. What

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constitute necessaries would depend upon the age, the rank, and fortune of the minor.

2. **Consideration.**— No contract is valid without a sufficient consideration. Consideration may be divided; as, (A) *Valuable;* (B) *Good;* (C) *Insufficient.*

(A) *Valuable consideration* is usually expressed by money or is convertible into money.

(B) A *good consideration* is founded on love, affection, or gratitude. It will be accepted as consideration for a contract already performed, but is not good for contracts to be performed some time in the future. As a gift already made but not holding for one promised.

(C) *Insufficient consideration* may be classed, as (D) *Gratuitous;* (E) *Illegal;* (F) *Impossible;* (G) *Moral.*

Gratuitous.—A contract based on a promise wholly gratuitous is void for want of consideration. Examples: Public subscriptions, charities, etc.

Illegal.—A contract with an illegal consideration is void. A contract to commit, conceal, or compound a crime is void. Either party may avoid the contract where the consideration is illegal.

Impossible.— If the consideration is impossible the contract is void. The law compels no one to perform impossibilities. That the consideration was difficult would not be an excuse.

Moral.—A moral obligation, alone, is not a sufficient consideration. A person is not legally obligated to pay for services already rendered a relative, even though he promise to do so after the services are

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performed. Had the person promised before the service was performed, the case would be different. The position of a parent and minor child would be an exception.

3. **Subject-matter.**—All contracts the subject-matter of which is illegal, immoral, or impolitic are void.

Contracts in restraint of trade are void even though given for a valuable consideration. A contract not to carry on a lawful business *anywhere*, whether the time be limited or not is invalid. An agreement in partial restraint of trade if confined within reasonable bounds or to certain persons and given for a sufficient consideration would be valid.

A doctor might sell his practice and agree not to practice within a certain number of miles of the place. If given for a valuable consideration, the contract would be valid. The court would decide the reasonableness of the limitation.

Contracts in general restraint of marriage are void because against public policy. A contract not to marry a particular person would be valid. A contract not to marry until of a suitable or reasonable age is valid. The condition that a widow shall forfeit certain portions of her deceased husband's estate if she marry again may be valid, if she accepted it under those conditions.

Fraud vitiates any contract if the innocent party so wishes, otherwise the other party may be held. A contract that operates as a fraud on third parties is

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void. Examples: Fraudulent assignments; fraudulent sales; perversion of insolvent laws.

"Fraud consists in the employment of any kind of cunning, deception, artifice, or concealment to cheat, circumvent, or deceive another in a business matter." If both parties are equally guilty, neither has usually any redress at law. If one party is more innocent, the reverse is true. The innocent party may many times hold the other if he chooses, or himself refuse to be bound by the contract. The guilty party cannot avoid the contract on account of his own fraud if the contract is already executed.

4. **Assent.** — There can be no contract valid and binding, unless the parties assent to the same thing and in the same sense. There must be a proposition by one party and an acceptance by the other.

If the proposition and acceptance are made by mail, the contract is presumed to be completed as soon as the acceptance is mailed, and even a telegram countermanding it before the letter was received need not necessarily be allowed to avoid it.

5. **Time.** — Time enters into the contract as an essential element and is either expressed or implied. Something to be done between two certain days is not performed if done on either of those days. If the day for performance falls upon Sunday, the performing party has the privilege of performing on the next secular day.

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STATUTE OF FRAUDS.

By the "Statute of Frauds," which has been adopted by most States, certain contracts must be in writing The following are those adopted by New York and most other States: "Every contract for the leasing of a longer period than one year, or for the sale of any lands, or any interest in lands, shall be void, unless the contract or some note or memorandum thereof, expressing the consideration, be in writing and be subscribed by the party by whom the lease or sale is made." Annual crops resulting from cultivation, if the price is less than fifty dollars, do not come within the meaning of the statute; as corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, etc.

In the following cases every agreement shall be void unless such agreement, or some note or memorandum thereof, be in writing and subscribed by the party to be charged therewith:

1. Every agreement that, by its terms, is not to be performed within one year from the making thereof.

2. Every special promise to answer for the debt, default, or miscarriage of another.

3. Every agreement, promise, or undertaking, made upon consideration of marriage, except mutual promises to marry.

4. Every contract for the sale of any chattels, goods, or things in action, for the price of fifty dollars or more shall be void unless,

"*First*, A note or memorandum of such contract be made in writing and subscribed by the parties to be charged thereby; or,

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"*Second*, Unless the buyer shall accept and receive part of such goods or the evidences, or some of them, of such things in action; or,

"*Third*, Unless the buyer shall, at the time, pay some part of the purchase-money."

In addition to being written, there must be a consideration in the contracts, as above, either express or implied.

"A party to a contract is not bound until he yields a full, free and intelligent assent of its terms." "An offer made may be retracted any time before its acceptance."

A competent party making a contract with a minor cannot hold the minor, except as before noted, but the minor can sue and recover for the non-performance of the other party.

Contracts required to be in writing by the "Statute of Frauds," hold only the party signing if but one signs. The other has it at his option.

Damages. — "Perform your contract or pay damages." The law cannot compel the performance of a contract; it only knows a money remedy for non-performance. In a contract for personal service which cannot well be filled by another, the sickness of the promising party will excuse non-performance.

A court of equity may compel the performance of certain agreements; as the conveyance of real estate.

Construction.— The following rules are observed in the interpretation of contracts:

1. *Intention.* — The first care is to give effect to

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the intention of the parties so far as the intention was mutual and legal.

2. *Meaning of Terms.* — The terms of a contract are to be interpreted according to their usual meaning, if that seems to satisfy the intention of the parties. Technical words are interpreted according to their use in the profession, or the trade to which they belong.

Interpretation. — Certain contracts are expounded according to the usage or custom of trade when needed to explain the meaning of peculiar terms. The law of place would also enter as a factor; if the custom of the place where the contract was made differed from other places, that would give a different meaning to its terms.

The interpretation is made upon the *whole* contract and not upon its parts. The object of the parties is to be gathered from the *whole* instrument, and one clause will be interpreted by another.

Wherever one portion cannot be reconciled with the obvious intention of the parties, it will be expunged. "Effect will be given to the whole intention."

FORMS OF CONTRACTS — A GENERAL RELEASE.

Know all men by these presents: That I, A. B., of ....., in consideration of ....., and other good and valuable considerations to me in hand paid by A. C., of ....., have remised, released and forever discharged, and by these presents do, for me, my

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heirs, executors and administrators, remise, release, and forever discharge said A. C., his heirs, executors, and administrators, of and from all and all manner of actions, suits, debts, dues, sums of money, accounts, reckonings, bonds, bills, specialties, covenants, contracts, controversies, agreements, promises, variances, damages, judgments, executions, claims and demands whatsoever, in law or equity, which against the said A. B. I ever had, now have, or which I, my heirs, my executors and administrators hereafter can, shall, or may have, for, upon or by reason of any matter, cause or thing whatsoever (or by reason of .....), from the beginning of the world to the day of the date of these presents.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this ..... day of ....., A. D., 189..

(Signed) A. B. [L. S.]

Signed and delivered in the presence of

D. E.

Memorandum of sale.— It is agreed by and between A. B. and B. E., of, etc., that said A. B., in consideration of two hundred bushels of wheat, sold to him this day by the said B. E., free of all charges or expenses, whatsoever, at ....., on or before ....., shall and will pay or cause to be paid to the said B. E., or his assigns, upon such delivery, the sum of ..... dollars.

And the said B. E., in consideration of the agreement aforesaid of the said A. B., doth promise and

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agree, on or before the said ....., at his own expense, to send in and deliver to the said A. B., or his assigns, the said two hundred bushels of wheat so sold him as aforesaid, and the said B. E. shall and will warrant the same to be good, clean and merchantable grain.

In witness whereof, the said parties have hereunto set their hands the day and year first above written.

A. B.

In presence of B. E.

C. D.

Lease of house.— I, ... of ....., hereby lease to ..... of ....., for the term of ....., to commence on ..... the dwelling-house (describe it) with its appurtenances, for the yearly rent of ....., to be paid .....

Said .... ., agrees to pay said ....., said rents at the times above specified and to surrender the premises at the expiration of the term, in as good condition as reasonable use will allow, fire and unavoidable accidents excepted.

In witness whereof, the said parties have hereunto set their hands this ..... of ....., A. D., 189..

(Signed) —— ——.

(Signed) —— ——.

General form of contract.— Memorandum of an agreement made this ..... day of ....., in the

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year, 189.., between A. B., of ....., as first party, and B. C., of ....., as second party,

Witnesseth: That the said first party hereby agrees to, etc., ... (Here insert first party's obligations.)

In consideration of the above being faithfully kept and performed by the said first party, the said second party, etc. (Here insert second party's obligations.)

In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands and seals the day and year first above written.

A. B.

In the presence of B. C.

C. D.

A seal on an instrument is usually conclusive proof that it was given for a consideration, but the laws of New York permit evidence to be submitted on rebuttal of this presumption.

PARTNERSHIPS.

"A partnership is a contract between two or more competent persons for joining together their money, goods, labor and skill, or any or all of them, under an understanding that there shall be a communion of profit between them, and for the purpose of carrying on a legal trade, business or adventure."—STORY.

Partners: Any person of sound mind and able to conduct ordinary business may enter into a partnership. An infant may be a partner, but in general he could incur no liability and might disaffirm the contract at any time. A married woman can be a part-

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ner only in such States as have removed their disabilities.

Partners are grouped as follows: *Ostensible*, those whose names are known and appear as partners; *nominal*, those who appear to the world as partners, but who have really no interest in the business.

Nominal partners are responsible to all creditors who gave the firm credit because of their apparent connection with it.

Dormant partners are those who do not appear to the world as partners, but are actually interested in the business. They are liable to creditors of the business. *Special* partners are those who supply a certain amount of capital, and on complying with certain requirements are not liable for debts of the firm above the amount they invest.

Relations of partners: Mutual respect, confidence in the honesty, skill, judgment, and good business instinct of each other must be the basis of each partnership. On this account, if the partnership suffers through the neglect of any partner, he is liable to the others. He is liable in damages to the other partners for any breach of partnership contract.

No partner has any right to engage in any private business that will in any way operate to the detriment of the partnership.

The powers of all partners in ordinary cases are equal and neither can exclude the other from a share in the management of the business or from the possession of partnership property.

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A partnership can only exist by voluntary contract, and no third party can be introduced into the firm without unanimous consent.

Powers of partners: The acts of one partner bind all the rest. Each partner has power to transact any and all necessary business for the partnership. The frauds of one partner bind the firm, though the others have no knowledge of his action. The partner should transact all business in the name of the firm, otherwise he alone is liable. He has no power to bind the partnership outside the transaction of the regular business of the firm. The fraud of a partner will not bind the partnership if the third party is aware of the fraud or that the partner is exceeding his authority. Each partner is liable to third parties for partnership debts to the extent of his whole private property.

Subject-matter: By this is meant the business in which they have engaged. The essence of the contract is, that the partners are *jointly* concerned in the profits and losses, or at least the profits of some legitimate business. If the contract does not specify the manner of division, they will be supposed to be divided equally.

Articles of co-partnership.— If the business is extensive, or the relations to continue for a great length of time, formal articles should be adopted. Any form that clearly sets forth the nature of the business, the investments of each partner, the division of the profits and losses, the powers and duties of

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each partner, the commencement and termination of the partnership will answer the purpose. The partnership commences at once if no other time is specified. The laws of New York prohibit the use of fictitious names in the firm name. "& Co." cannot there be used unless it represent an actual partner. If no time is expressed for termination, the partnership is presumed to be "at will" only and may be dissolved at any time.

Dissolution.—This may take place by acts of the parties, by judicial decree, by operation of law.

A partnership may be dissolved at any time by mutual consent. If the partnership is for any specified time it may be dissolved by one partner refusing to act with the other, or by his assigning his share to a third party. Such assignment does not constitute the third party a partner without the consent of all the others. A partnership for a certain time, expires when that period has passed.

The partnership could be dissolved by judicial decree at any time for good and sufficient reasons, as unfitness or inability of a partner developed after the commencement of the partnership, or should the business be impracticable or when founded in error.

The law would operate to dissolve the partnership if one partner became insane, idiotic, or in any way incapable of performing his duties.

All right, title and interest of any partner may be sold under execution against him. The bankruptcy

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of one partner would dissolve the partnership unless provided for by special agreement.

After dissolution no power remains to create new obligations, and a partner could not renew a partnership note, or even indorse one to pay a prior debt of the firm. Unless provided for, to the contrary, each partner has power to collect accounts and to settle up the affairs of the business.

A notice of dissolution to all persons dealing with the firm is necessary when the retiring partner wishes to avoid further liability for debts incurred by the partnership. The retiring partner is already liable for all prior debts. To avoid responsibility, notice must be given to each person who has had dealings with the partnership. A notice published in the local paper will do for all subsequent creditors.

GUARANTY.

A guaranty is the promise to answer for the payment of some debt or the performance of some duty or contract of another, in case of his failure to pay or perform. Being in nature a contract it must have the elements of a contract. The parties of a guaranty are, the *debtor*, the *creditor*, and the *guarantor*.

In a written guarantee the consideration should be expressed.

All guarantees must have a consideration to render them valid and the consideration is based on the advantage to the guarantor, or the person for whom

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he promises, or on a detriment to the person to whom he promises. Either will answer.

Certain guarantees must be in writing. See "Statutes of Frauds." A verbal guaranty is valid when the liability exists before the guarantor makes his promise if the first debtor is then discharged by the new promise. Again, when the principal obligation is void after the new promise.

Any change in the contract without the consent of the guarantor will extinguish the guaranty.

PAYMENTS.

The giving of a note for a debt is not a payment unless the note is paid at maturity, or there has been an express agreement to accept such note in full payment.

Where the amount of an indebtedness is mutually admitted, a part payment will not discharge the debt even if a receipt in full is given, unless there is a release given under seal. It would not then, under the laws of Pennsylvania and some other States. In those cases some minor article, as a hat, or anything of value to go with the money, will be necessary for a full discharge. This rule would not hold if the payment were made *before* the debt matured, or if there were any question as to the amount of indebtedness. When the amount is in question, any sum may be accepted as payment in full. Chattels might be taken in full discharge of a debt, though not worth anything like the full amount of the debt.

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Labor, irrespective of its value, may be received in full discharge of a debt. The note of a third party for even a less amount may be accepted, if paid at maturity.

WILLS.

No particular form of a will is required. Any words that clearly convey the idea of the testator are sufficient.

Kinds. — Unwritten or nuncupative and written. All wills must be written, except those of soldiers and sailors when in actual service, or in some States they may be allowed in extreme cases when a necessity. The parties to a will are the testator or person making the will, the donee or person benefited by the will, and the executor or person empowered to see that the provisions of the will are carried out.

Testator. — The testator must be competent. In New York, males of 18 years of age and females of 16 years of age may dispose of personal property. A married woman cannot make a valid will without the consent of her husband, except in those States where their disabilities have been removed. The testator must possess mind and memory enough to fully understand the nature and consequences of his action.

Donee. — The donees are the persons benefiting by the will.

They are called devisees when the gift is of real estate, and legatees when the gift is one of personal property.

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Any person in general, capable of acquiring property by their own exertion, may be a donee. Corporations cannot take by will unless empowered to do so by their charters.

Executor.—Any person capable of making a will may be an executor.

He must see that the deceased is buried in a suitable manner; he must file a bond, offer the will for probate, make and return an inventory, collect the property, pay the debts and distribute the remainder according to the terms of the will. He must render an account of all, and file with the probate office.

Subject-matter.—Little form is necessary for disposing of personal property. A will might be accepted for disposing of personal property when parts relating to real estate would not be valid.

By common law the testator must be possessed of real estate he devises at the time the will is made. By the laws of Vermont, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia, he may devise any that he is possessed of at the time of his death, if that was evidently his intention. The laws of Maine, Ohio, Illinois and Connecticut, are similar.

Execution.—The will must be signed by the testator, or by some person acting for him at his request. When he signs or acknowledges the will he must declare it to be his last will.

It is best to have three witnesses, though some of the States require but two. The New England States and some of the Southern States require

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three; the Middle and Western States in general require two; Louisiana requires four witnesses. The witnesses must write their names and addresses as witnesses. New York prescribes a fine of fifty dollars for their failure to do so.

The testator must sign or acknowledge his signature in the presence of these witnesses. A codicil to be valid must be witnessed with the same formalities as the will.

A subsequent will revokes the preceding one. All witnesses should be disinterested parties.

The following States have particular provisions in their statutes concerning wills:

New York.—No person having a husband, wife, child, or parent, shall devise more than one-half of his or her estate to any charitable, literary, scientific, or kindred institution. Should a testator marry after making a will disposing of the whole of his estate, and there should be born an issue of such marriage, unless provision shall have been made for such issue, by settlement, or unless the will provides for such issue, or shows an intention not to provide for such issue, the will shall be revoked and no other evidence shall be submitted in rebuttal.

A child born after the making of a will and not provided for by will or settlement, shall succeed to such portion of the estate as would have fallen to it had the parent died intestate.

A bequest to a witness renders the will void only so far as the witness and his bequest is concerned. He is a competent witness still.

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Colorado.—A married man cannot by will deprive his wife of more than one-half his estate. A married woman cannot deprive her husband of more than one-half her estate without his consent in writing.

Connecticut.—No bequest can be given to a subscribing witness, and a subsequent marriage or birth of a child revokes the will unless specially provided for therein.

District of Columbia.—Bequests to any minister, teacher, or religious sect or denomination, unless made at least one month before the testator's death, are void.

Iowa.—Disposition of homestead or other privileged property to wife and family is void.

Kansas.—A married person cannot, without the consent of the husband or wife, dispose of more than one-half of his or her property.

Maine.—A posthumous child shares the same as though there was no will, unless otherwise provided for.

Massachusetts.—A bequest to a subscribing witness is void, or to the husband or wife of such witness, unless there are three other witnesses.

New Hampshire.—Bequest to subscribing witness void without there are three other subscribing witnesses.

New Jersey.—Same as Maine.

Pennsylvania.—Bequest to a charity within one month of testator's death is void.

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General Form of a Will.

I, A. B., of ....., in the county of ....., and State of ....., do make and publish this my last will and testament, as follows:

(If not first will, use "hereby revoking any and all former wills by me at any time made:")

1. I direct my just debts and funeral expenses to be paid out of my estate as soon as possible after my decease.

2. I give and devise unto ....., of ....., all that certain lot, piece, or parcel of land situated ..... and known as ....., with the appurtenances, to have and to hold the same, unto the said ....., his heirs and assigns forever.

3. I give and bequeath to my son, C. B., the sum of ..... dollars upon his attaining the age of twenty-one years, and I direct my said executor to invest the said sum from my estate as soon as convenient after my death and to keep the same invested until he shall become of age.

And in case my said son shall die before becoming of age, and leaving no descendants, I direct the said sum to be divided among my then surviving children share and share alike.

4. I give unto my son, J. B., the sum of ..... dollars.

5. I give unto my daughter, D. B., ...

6. All the rest, residue and remainder of my real and personal estate whatsoever, which I may own or be entitled to dispose of at the time of my death, of

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what nature, kind and title soever the same may be, not hereinbefore disposed of, I do give and bequeath unto my wife, E. B., her heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, to her and for her and their own use and benefit absolutely forever.

And I hereby constitute my said wife the executrix of this my will, and clothe her with all necessary authority to carry out the provisions of this my last will and testament.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal this ..... day of ....., in the year ....

A. B. [L. S.]

The above instrument of (number of sheets) was, at the date thereof, declared to us by the testator, A. B., to be his last will and testament, and he then acknowledged to each of us that he had subscribed the same, and we, at his request, sign our names thereto as attesting witnesses.

L. M.,
Residing at .....
J. K.,
Residing at .....
D. A.,
Residing at .....

Bequest to Wife in Lieu of Dower.

Item.— I give and devise unto my said wife all that lot, piece or parcel of land (describe it), with all the appurtenances, to have and to hold the same, her heirs and assigns forever.

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Which said legacy given to my said wife I hereby declare is intended to be, and is so given to her, in full satisfaction and recompense of and for her dower and thirds which she may or in any wise claim or demand out of my estate.

Item.— I give and devise all, etc.

A devise to the widow in lieu of dower must be plainly set forth as such, as otherwise she may be allowed both the devise and the dower.

RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN.

Alabama.— Husband is not liable for her debts incurred prior to marriage. Her property held before and after marriage is secured to her separate use. The husband is her trustee.

Arkansas.— Her estate, both real and personal, is her sole property and she may sue and be sued on account thereof.

California.—All property acquired prior to marriage is hers and may be controled by her as before. All property acquired after marriage is common to both. Upon death of either party one-half the estate goes to the survivor.

Colorado.— Same as though unmarried, except that she cannot bequeath away from her husband more than one-half her estate without his consent.

Connecticut.— Neither party acquires by marriage any right to the estate (with some exceptions) of the other. Her earnings are her own.

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She may convey property or contract with third parties as though unmarried. Her property is not liable for the debts of her husband, and he is bound to support the family. The use of one-third of his estate, on his death, cannot be defeated by will. If no will is left she takes the third absolutely. A legacy may be accepted in lieu of dower. Accepting the legacy voids the dower right.

Dakota.—Has the same rights as an unmarried woman; she may make contracts with her husband as though unmarried. Dower and curtesy are abolished. She attains her majority at eighteen.

Delaware.— Real and personal property acquired at any time from any person, but her husband, are her sole and separate property. She is not liable for his debts. If twenty-one years of age, she has all the rights of an unmarried woman.

District of Columbia. — Her earnings are her husband's. Property acquired at any time and from any person but her husband is hers, and she may contract, sue and be sued in her own name in any matter relating to her separate estate.

Florida. — Property, both real and personal, is her separate estate. It must be inventoried and recorded in the clerk's office to be exempt from her husband's debts. Her husband must join with her in conveying her separate estate. Dower right of one-third. She may dispose of her property by will, as though unmarried.

Georgia. — Her earnings to the extent of $2,000

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are her own. Property coming to her either before or after marriage, is her separate estate and not liable for the debts of husband. She may sue and be sued with regard to her estate and make a will with the consent of her husband.

Idaho. — All property owned by either husband or wife prior to marriage or acquired by devise or descent after marriage, is separate estate. The wife's property must be inventoried and recorded. The husband controls her separate estate, but cannot sell without her consent. Property acquired after marriage, except as above, is common. On death of husband, half the common property goes to the wife, if there are descendants; if no descendants, all goes to her. All common property goes to husband on death of wife.

Illinois. — She may make a will. She has her separate estate. She may contract, sue and be sued in all matters relating to her separate property.

Indiana. — She holds both her real and personal property as separate estate, not having power to sell or incumber the real estate unless the husband joins with her. She may carry on any business pertaining to her estate and sue and be sued thereon. She may make a will. Dower and curtesy are abolished. She takes as *fee* on the death of the husband, one-third of the real estate free from creditors, when it does not exceed $10,000, one-fourth when it does not exceed $20,000, one-fifth when it exceeds $20,000. She is eligible to any office under school laws.

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Iowa. — Her real and personal estate are her separate property. She may dispose of it about as freely as though unmarried. Her wages are her own. The family expenses are chargeable to the estate of either or both. She may receive gifts from her husband. Each has the same right of dower.

Kansas. — A married woman has all the right to her earnings, real estate and personal property, as an unmarried woman, except that she cannot deprive her husband of more than one-half of it by will without his consent. If either die without will and without issue the survivor takes all the property. She cannot be deprived by will of more than one-half their property.

Kentucky. — Her real and personal property are her separate estate. The husband has the right to their use and can rent the real estate for three years at a time. Her estate is liable for necessaries for the family. Property derived by her from inheritance cannot be disposed of without consent of the husband. Husband succeeds to deceased wife's personal estate. She may make a will. She succeeds to one-half her husband's personal estate if he leave no issue, and one-third if he leaves issue.

Louisiana. — A married woman may make a will. The law is very complex and her powers under it limited. Property owned in this State by non-residents is subject to the same regulations as though held by residents. Non-residents should exercise care in this respect.

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Maine.—A married woman holds as her separate estate all property derived from whatever source, except through her husband, or coming from him to defraud creditors. She may contract, sue, and be sued on matters pertaining to her estate. She is of legal age though she may be under twenty-one years.

Maryland.—A married woman may make a will if eighteen years of age.

Her property, both real and personal, and whenever acquired is her separate estate. It is not liable for the debts of the husband.

Her income and earnings are her own and she may dispose of them as though unmarried. Except as above the husband must join in disposing of the estate. She may release her dower right, either by separate deed or jointly with her husband.

Massachusetts.— The real and personal property of a married woman remains her separate estate. She may make contracts with all but her husband. Her wages are her own unless by special agreement.

She cannot acquire from her husband by gift, except "articles of use and personal adornment," and these are limited to $2,000.

She may sue and be sued as though unmarried and make a will, but cannot bequeath from her husband more than one-half of her personal property nor deprive him of his tenancy in her real estate.

If she wishes to engage in business separately, she must file a certificate with the clerk of the town or city where she does business setting forth the nature

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of the business and her name and that of her husband's. If this is not done the property may be attached for the debts of the husband and the husband may be held liable for the contracts made in carrying out the business.

Aside from the above, neither is liable for the debts of the other.

If the husband dies leaving no issue, the widow takes his real estate in fee to the extent of $5,000, and also has a life interest in all other real estate, unless she shall elect to take her dower rights in lieu thereof. The same rule applies to the husband if she dies intestate. If she die without will, leaving issue, he takes one-half her personal estate; if she leaves no issue, he takes all the personal estate.

Michigan.—A married woman has the same right to her property, both real and personal, as though unmarried. She may make contracts and carry on business pertaining to the separate estate, but cannot bind it except in reference to her own business. She has right of dower.

Minnesota.—A married woman has full control over her separate estate, except that she cannot convey the realty unless the husband joins her in the deed. She may make any contract she might make if unmarried. She attains her full legal age at eighteen years.

Mississippi.—The married woman has all her disabilities removed.

Conveyance between husband and wife must be

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recorded and acknowledged. The widow shares equally with each child, and if no children are left, takes the whole property in fee.

Missouri. — The real and personal property of a married woman are her separate estate, and she may make contracts and dispose of the same.

Montana. — The married woman controls her separate estate. It is not liable for debts of the husband unless contracted for her or children under eighteen years. A list of her property must be recorded.

If she engages in business, she must file a statement setting forth her intention and nature of the business. May dispose of any property by will if over eighteen years of age. Dower abolished.

The survivor has one-half the property of the other if there is no issue; if issue, one-third. On death of husband, one-half the *common* property goes to widow.

Nebraska. — A married woman has full control of her property and earnings. She may make a will. She attains full legal age at sixteen years if married; otherwise at eighteen years.

New Hampshire. — A married woman has the same control of her property and earnings as though unmarried. She cannot receive real estate directly from husband. She may make a will.

New Jersey. — A married woman holds her separate estate, but cannot convey realty without her husband joining. She may make contracts for her separate estate, and sue and be sued thereon. She

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cannot become responsible as surety. She may make a will, but cannot deprive her husband of his rights in her real estate.

New York. — A married woman controls her separate estate, and is not liable for the debts of her husband. She cannot acquire property directly from him. She may sue and be sued in regard to her person or her property. She may make a will. She may give power of attorney.

North Carolina. —All property of a married woman is her separate estate. She must have her husband's written consent to make contracts for the same. She may make a will and convey her property with his consent.

Ohio. — A married woman has the same control of her earnings and property as though unmarried. She may make a will. She attains her majority at eighteen years. Husband is not liable for her contracts.

Pennsylvania. — The separate property of a married woman is not liable for her husband's debts. Her property may be charged with necessaries furnished herself or her family. Her note is not valid. Her earnings belong to her husband. Her husband must join with her in conveying her estate. She may make a will subject to his rights of curtesy.

Rhode Island. — The property of a married woman is not liable for the support of herself, her family, or the debts of her husband, and after his death belongs to her solely. Her note is not valid.

Money in savings banks, mortgages, jewels, furni-

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ture, etc., can only be disposed of by joint deed with her husband. All other personal property of her estate she has control of as though unmarried.

She may make a will, but cannot deprive her husband of curtesy.

Vermont. —A married woman's separate property is not liable for the debts of her husband, her support, or the support of her children.

Husband must join in conveying her real estate. Dower is allowed only in the real estate of which her husband dies possessed.

She cannot contract except under certain conditions. She may make a will. She attains her majority at eighteen years.

Virginia.—The separate property of a married woman is not liable for her husband's debts. She may sue and be sued in relation thereto, but her husband must join with her in any contracts relating to her estate. She may make a will but cannot deprive her husband of his curtsey.

West Virginia.—The separate estate of a married woman is free from the debts or control of her husband. If living apart from her husband, she has full control of her estate, otherwise he must join her in the conveyance. She may sue and be sued in relation to her separate estate. She may make a will.

Wisconsin.—A married woman has all the rights over her estate of an unmarried woman, and may deal with her husband as with a stranger. A deed

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or mortgage of the homestead is not valid without her signature.

Wyoming.—A married woman has nearly all the rights of an unmarried one. She may vote and hold office.

ESSENTIALS OF LETTER WRITING.

Capital Letters.

A word should begin with a capital letter:

1. When the first word in a sentence.
2. When it is a proper name.

Example: Boston — New York — Chicago.

3. When it is immediately derived from a proper name.

Example: English — Russian — American.

4. When it is a name of the Deity.

Example: God — Savior — Holy One.

5. When it is the name of a sect, denomination, or political party.

Example: Methodist — Whig — Republican — Democrat.

6. The words North, South, East, and West when they refer to a section or division of country, but not when they indicate direction alone.

Example: The riches of the East — A south wind.

7. When the title of a person.

Example: Colonel Esmond — Dr. Samuel Johnson.

8. When the title of a book or one of the principal words in such title.

Example: "Bancroft's History of the United States."

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9. When the first word of a direct quotation.

Example: "He who will, can."

10. When the first word in a line of poetry.

Example: "Lives of great men all remind us,
We can make our lives sublime."

11. When it is the name of a geographical division.

Example: Gulf of Lyons — Red Sea — Isle of Man.

12. When the first word in a broken line, as the address or signature of a letter, or the principal word of such line.

Example: I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant.

13. When the chief article mentioned in an account.

Example: 7 lbs. of Coffee — To Storage and Advertising.

14. When following the words, Resolved, Witnesseth, Whereas, etc.

Example: Resolved, That, etc.

15. When it is a common noun fully personified.

Example: "When Freedom from her mountain height."

16. Nearly all abbreviations should begin with a capital letter.

Example: Agt.— Acct.— Supt.— Atty.

Do not use a capital letter when in doubt as to its propriety.

PUNCTUATION.

In the use of Marks of Punctuation, all good writers do not agree; and their rules are not like those of mathematics, unchangeable.

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The usage of to-day is not that of the past and will not be that of the future.

The following rules are the most important and are compiled from the best modern authorities:

Rules.

A period should be placed—

1. After every declarative and imperative sentence.

   Example: I saw him go.—Close the door.

2. After all abbreviations.

   Example: Mdse.—Amt.—Ph. D.—LL. D.

3. After numbers written in the Roman notation.

   Example: XIX.—Psalm XC.

Colon.

A colon is placed after a sentence which formally introduces a distinct quotation.

Example: We are often reminded of this remark of Marshal Lannes: "Know, Colonel, that none but a poltroon would boast that he was never afraid."

The colon may be used to separate the great parts of a long complex sentence when the minor sentences therein are separated by the semicolon.

The colon is passing out of use, its place being taken by the dash, the semicolon, and the period.

Semicolon.

1. A semicolon is placed before *as*, *to wit*, *viz.*, *namely*, and *that is* when they introduce examples or illustrations.

Example: Every solid has three dimensions; namely, length, breadth, and thickness.

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2. Place a semicolon at the close of a sentence which by its terms promises another sentence.

Example: "Tic-tac, Tic-tac, go the wheels of thought; our will cannot stop them; they cannot stop themselves; sleep cannot still them; madness only makes them go faster; death alone can break into the case,"

3. A semicolon may be used to separate short sentences which have but a slight connection with each other.

Example: He was a poor boy; he had no showy accomplishments; he had no influential friends; but he was rich in youth, courage. and honesty of purpose.

Comma.

1. Set off by the comma an explanatory modifier when it does not restrict the modified term.

Example: The order, to fire, was given.

2. Set off by the comma a word or phrase that is independent.

Example: To tell the truth, he was not at home.

3. Set off by the comma a phrase that is out of its natural order.

Example: Shifting his burden, he hurried on

4. Set off by the comma a participle used as an adjective.

Example: The water, expanding, burst the pipe.

5. Set off by the comma connected words and phrases unless the conjunctions are all expressed.

Example: "From the mountain, from the river, from the hill, and from the plain, we are sweeping to the rescue,"

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6. A comma is used before a direct quotation unless it is formally introduced. Greely said, "The way to resume is to resume."

7. Set off by commas all parenthetical expressions and the following words when used as such; however, that is, indeed, of course, finally, again, first, second, also, therefore, yes, no, too, etc.

Example: He is, indeed, worthy.

8. Use the comma *after* as, viz., to-wit, namely, and that is, when they introduce examples.

Example: We will promote the man; that is, if he is worthy.

9. The parts of a complex sentence should be separated by a comma when the *auxiliary* precedes the *principal* sentence.

Example: If the messenger calls, give him the letter.

10. Separate by the comma a phrase or sentence used as a subject and its verb.

Example: "That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."

11. Words used in direct address should be separated by the comma.

Example: "Stranger, I am Roderick Dhu."

Interrogation.

1. Use the interrogation point after a word, phrase, or sentence by which a question is asked.

Example: Now? For me? When do you go?

2. An interrogation enclosed in parentheses denotes doubt.

Example: Your friend (?) told me this.

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Exclamation.

1. Use the exclamation point after a word, phrase, or sentence whose principal function seems to be that of expressing sudden and intense emotion.

Example: "To arms! they come! the Greek! the Greek!"

2. An exclamation point placed in parentheses denotes peculiar surprise.

Dash.

1. A dash is usually placed before the answer to a question when both are on the same line.

Example: Are you acquainted with the defendant?—I am.

2. A dash is often used in place of the parentheses,

Example: With a firm step—for he was brave—he advanced.

3. Use the dash where there is an omission of such words; as, *namely, that is, as,* introducing equivalent expressions and when letters or figures are omitted.

Example: "Some wit has divided the world into two classes—the wise and the otherwise." General M——— was present.

4. Use the dash when there is a sudden transition.

Example: We have learned the bitter lesson—let us bury the past.

Parenthesis.

The marks of parenthesis are used to enclose what has no essential connection with the rest of the sentence.

Example: We have been sorely deceived (and who has not) but we have not lost all faith.

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Present usage seems to avoid the distinctive marks; their place being taken by the comma and dash.

Apostrophe.

Use the apostrophe to denote the omission of a letter, to indicate the possessive case, and to form the plurals of letters, figures, and characters.

Example: 'Tis done.— The king's edict has gone forth.— Can you say the 9's?

Quotation.

1. Use the quotation marks to enclose a *direct* quotation.

Example: "Quoth the raven, 'Never more.'"

2. Quotations within quotations are set off by single marks; as in the above example.

Hyphen.

Use the hyphen to join the parts of compound words and between the syllables when a word is divided.

Example: Dr. Brown-Sequard. Caution. A syllable must not be divided

Paragraph.

The paragraph is used to indicate a new subject of remark. The sign is retained in the Holy Scripture but in ordinary composition is indicated to the eye by beginning a little to the right of the marginal line of the page.

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A paragraph is a group of sentences bound by the thought which they jointly express and is almost necessary to express the beginning and end of each subject of remark.

General Rule of Punctuation :— Punctuate wherever needed to make your meaning clear.

Rules for Spelling.

1. Words of one syllable and words accented on the last syllable ending in a single consonant after a single vowel, double the consonant on taking another syllable beginning with a vowel.

Example: Rob — robber.

2. Words ending in final *e* usually drop it on taking another syllable beginning with a vowel.

Example: Come — coming.

3. Words ending in *ce* and *ge* retain the *e* before *able* and *ous*.

Example: Peace — peaceable; courage — courageous.

4. Final *e* of a primitive word is usually retained on taking another syllable beginning with a consonant.

Example: Love — lovely; pale — paleness. Exception: Truly, duly, judgment, acknowledgment.

5. The plural of nouns ending in *y* after a consonant is formed by changing *y* into *i* and adding *es*.

Example: City — cities; supply — supplies.

6. The plurals of nouns ending in *y* after a vowel are formed in the usual manner by adding *s* to the singular.

Example: Valley — valleys.

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7. The final *y* of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is usually changed into *i* before another syllable.

Example: Merry — merrily; but before *ing* the *y* is retained to prevent doubling the *i*.

8. The word "full," when used as an affix, drops one *l* and the plurals of its compounds are formed in the usual manner by adding *s* to the singular.

Example: Thankful (l) — cupful — cupfuls.

Common Errors in Pronunciation.

1. Do not clip final consonants, as goin' for going.

How do *you* pronounce — coming, singing, walking, talking?

2. Do not sound *ow* like *ur* or *uh*; as shad ur, or shad uh for shad ow.

Pronounce — Bellow, fellow, yellow, pillow, mellow, swallow.

3. Do not sound *ed* like *id* or *ud*; as delight id, for delight ed.

Pronounce — United, provided, decided, subsided, righted, excited, exhausted.

Are *you* guilty of such offenses as:

4. Giving short *o*, unaccented, the sound of short *u*; as ub tuse, for ob tuse; ub tain, for ob tain?

Pronounce — Obscure, observe, obtain, occur, occasion, compel, condition, object, conceit, compare, condense.

5. Giving to *a*, unaccented, as in *car*, the sound of *u* short; as u bate, for a bate; u bandon, for a bandon.

Pronounce — Abase, abeam, abet, abolish, abode, around, amuse.

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6. Giving long *o*, unaccented, the sound of short *u*; as u bey, for o bey; u bedience, for o bedience.

Pronounce — Position, society, melody, opinion, provide.

7. Omitting the sounds of *d* or *t* among terminal letters; as bils, for builds; ros's, for roasts.

Pronounce — Fields, toasts, exhausts, holds, scolds, ghosts.

8. Omitting the sound of *r* following a vowel; as ahmy, for army.

Pronounce — Harder, order, larder, board, lord, remark, report, cord, sword.

9. Sounding *it* for *et* and *il* for *el*; as rack it, for rack et.

Pronounce — Gruel, blanket, longest, strongest, basket, ticket, thickest, honest, smallest.

10. Giving *unt* for *ent*, or *unce* for *ence*; as re sunt, for re cent; sen tunce, for sent ence.

11. Giving *oo* for long *u*; as bloo, for blue; doo ty, for du ty.

Pronounce — Tumor, tulip, tumult, sue, suet, suit.

12. Drawling the vowels, *ow*, *ew* and *ou*; as haoo for how.

Pronounce — Pound, cow, house, mound, found, sound, bow, vow.

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PRONUNCIATION.

A.

Abdomen, ab-dō′mĕn, *not* ab′dō-mĕn.
abjectly, ab′ject-lĭ, *not* ab-ject′lĭ.
absolutory, ab-sol′u-to-ry, *not* ab-so-lu′to-ry.
abstemious, ab-stē′mĭ-us, *not* ab-stĕm′-ĭ-us.
acclimate, ac-clī′māt, *not* ac′clĭ-māt.
accent (verb), ak-sent, *not* ak′sent.
accost, ak-kŏst′, *not* ak-kawst′.
acorn, a′korn, *not* a′kurn.
acoustics, a-kows′tiks, *not* a-kōōs′tiks.
across, a-kros′, *not* a-krawst′.
address (noun and verb), ad-dress′, *not* ad′dres.
adult, a-dult′, *not* ă′dult *nor* ad′ult.
adverse, ad′vers, *not* ad-vers′.
again, a-gĕn′, *not* a-gān′ *nor* a-gĭn′
aged, a′jed, *not* ājd.
agriculturist, ag-rĭ-kult′ūr-ist, *not* ag-rĭ-kult′ūr-al-ist.
albumen, al-bu′men, *not* al′bu-men.
aliment, ăl′ĭ-ment, *not* ăl-ĭ-ment.
allegro, al-le′gro, *not* al′le-gro.
allies (noun and verb), al-līz′, *not* al′līz.
allopathist, al-lop′a-thist, *not* al′lo-path-ist.
allopathy, al-lop′a-thĭ, *not* al′lo-path-ĭ.
ally (noun and verb), al-lī′, *not* al′lī.
alpaca, ăl-pak′a, *not* al-ä-pak′-a.
alternate (adj. and noun), al-ter′nat, *not* awl-ter′nat.
ameliorate, a-mēl′yō-rāt, *not* a-mēl′ĭ-o-rāt.
amenable, a-me′na-bl, *not* a-men′a-bl.
amour, a-mōōr′, *not* am′ōōr.
antipodes, an-tip′o-dēz′, *not* an′ ti-pōdz.
apostle, a-pos′l, *not* a-pos′tl *nor* a-paws′l.
Appalachian, ap-pa-lā′chĭ-an, *not* ap-pa-la′kĭ-an.
apparatus, ap-pa-rā′tus, *not* ap-pa-rä′tus.
Arabic, ăr′a-bik, *not* a-ra′bik.
architect, ar′kĭ-tekt, *not* arch′i-tekt.
arctic, ark′tik, *not* ar′tik.

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aroma, a-ro′ma, *not* ă′ro-ma.
arrow, ăr′row, *not* är′row.
Asia, ā′shĭ-a, *not* a′zha nor a′zhe-a.
assets, as′sets, *not* as-sets′.
attacked, at-takt′, *not* at-tak′ted.

B.

bade, bād, *not* băd.
badinage, bad-ĭ-näzh′ or bad′ĭ-näzh, *not* bad′in-āj.
bath, bäth, *not* băth.
behemoth, be′he-moth, *not* be-he′moth.
beloved (adjective), be-luv′ed.
beloved (verb), be-luvd′.
beneath, be-ne*th*′, *not* be-neth′.
biography, bĭ-og′ra-fy, *not* bĭ-og′ra-fy.
bitumen, bĭ-tu′men, *not* bit′u-men.
blasphemy, blas′fe-mĭ, *not* blas-fē′mĭ.
bleat, blēt, *not* blā̆t.
blouse, blowz, *not* blows.
bouquet, bo͝o-kā′, *not* bō-kā′.
bourn, bōrn, *not* bo͝orn.
bromide, bro′mĭd, *not* bro′mĭd.
bronchitis, bron-kī′tis, *not* bron-kē′tis.
brougham, bro͝o′am.
buoy, bwoi, *not* boi *nor* bo͝oĭ.
Burgundy, bur′gun-dĭ, *not* bur-gun′dĭ.

C.

cadi, ka′dĭ, *not* ka′dĭ.
caisson, kās′son.
Canaanite, kā′năn-īt, *not* ka′nā-ăn-īt.
canaille, ka-nāl′ or ka-nä′il, *not* ka-nel′.
canine, ka-nīn′, *not* ka′nĭn.
capitoline, kap′ĭ-to-lĭn, *not* kap-ĭ-to′lĭn.
carbonaceous, kar-bo-na′shus, *not* kar-bo-na′se-us.
Caucasian, kaw-ka′shan, *not* kaw-kash′an.
catch, kăch, *not* kĕch.
cayenne, kā-en′, *not* kĭ-en′ *nor* kĭ-an′.

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chasten, chās'n, *not* chăs'n.
chicanery, shē-kān'er-ĭ, *not* shĭ-kān'er-ĭ.
chimpanzee, chim-pan'ze, *not* shim-pan'ze.
Chinese, chi-nēz', *not* chi-nēs'.
chirography, kĭ-rog'ra-fi, *not* chĭ-rog'ra-fi.
chloride, klō'rīd, *not* klo'rĭd.
chlorine, klō'rĭn, not klō'rēn.
clandestine, klan-des'tĭn, *not* klan-des'tēn.
cleanly (adjective), klĕn'lĭ.
cleanly (verb), klēn'lĭ.
coadjutant, ko-ad'ju-tant, *not* ko-ad-ju'tant.
coadjutor, ko-ad-ju'tor, *not* ko-ad'ju-tor.
coffee, kŏf'e, *not* kaw'fe.
coffin, kŏf'in, *not* kawf'in.
combatant, kŏm'ba-tant or kum'ba-tant, *not* kom-bat'ant.
comely, kum'li, *not* not kōm'li.
compromise, kom'pro-mīz, *not* kom-prom'is.
concise, kon-sīs, *not* kon-sīz'.
condemning, kon-dem'ning, *not* kon-dem'ing.
construe, kon'strōō, *not* kon-strōō'.
contumacy, kon'tu-macy, *not* kon-tu'-macy
conversant, kon'ver-sant, *not* kon-ver'sant.
coquetry, ko-ket'rĭ, *not* ko'ket-rĭ.
courier, kōō'rĭ-er, *not* kur'rĭ-er.
covetous, kuv'et-us, *not* kuv'e-chus.
credence, krē'dence, *not* krĕd'ence.
creek, krēk, *not* krĭk.
culinary, kū'lĭ-na-rĭ, *not* kul'ĭ-na-rĭ.
cupola, ku'po-la, *not* ku'pa-lo.
curator, ku-ra'tor, *not* ku'ra-tor.
cursed (adjective), kur'sed, *not* kurst.

D.

daguerreotype, da-gĕr'o-tīp, *not* da-gĕr'e-o-tīp.
damning, dam'ning, *not* dam'ing.
Danish, Dān'ish, *not* Dăn'ish.
depot, dē-pó or dā-pó, *not* dā'pō. (Commonly, dē'po.)
diæresis, dĭ-ĕr'e-sis, *not* di-e-re'sis.

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dimension, dĭ-men'shun, *not* dī-men'shun.
diplomacy, dĭ-plo'ma-sĭ, *not* dip'lo-ma-sĭ.
direct, dĭ-rekt', *not* dī-rekt'.
discourteous, dis-kurt'e-us, *not* dis-kōrt'e-us.
divan, dĭ-van', *not* dī'van.
diverge, dĭ-verj', *not* dī-verj'.
dolorous, dŏl'o-rus, *not* dō'lo-rus.
Doric, dŏr-ik, *not* dō'rik.
drown, drown, *not* drownd.
drowned, drownd, *not* drown'ded.
ductile, duk'tĭl, *not* duk'tīl.

E.

egg, ĕg, *not* āg.
elm, ĕlm, *not* ĕl'um.
encore, ŏng-kōr', *not* ŏng'kōr.
epicurean, ep-ĭ-ku-re'an, *not* ep-ĭ-ku're-an.
epizootic, ep-ĭ-zo-ot'ik, *not* ep-ĭ-zō̆'tik.
equation, e-kwa'shun, *not* e-kwa'zhun.
erasure, e-rā'zhur, *not* e-rā'shur.
exact, egz-akt', *not* eks-akt'.
exquisite, eks'kwi-zit, *not* eks-kwiz'it.

F.

falchion, fawl'chun or fawl'shun, *not* făl'chun.
falcon, faw'kn, *not* făl'kn.
far, far, *not* fur.
faucet, faw'set, *not* făs'et.
feme-sole, fem-sōl', *not* fēm-sōl'.
figure, fig'yur, *not* fig'ur.
finale, fe-nä'le, *not* fi'năl.
finance, fĭ-nance', *not* fĭ'nance.
financier, fĭn-an-sēr', *not* fĭ-nan-sēr'.
flaccid, flăk'sid, *not* flăs'id.
for, for, *not* fur.
florist, flo rist, *not* flor ist.
forbade, for-băd', *not* for-bād'.
forge, fōrj, *not* fawrj.

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forgery, fōrj'er-i, *not* for'jer-i.
forget, for-ḡet', *not* for-ḡit'.
formidable, for'mi-da-ble, *not* for-mid'a-ble.
fortress, for tres, *not* fort res.
fragile, fraj'il, *not* fraj'il

G.

gaseous, gaz'e-us, *not* gas'e-us.
gasometer, gaz-om'e-ter, *not* gas-om'e-ter.
get, get, *not* git.
ghoul, gōōl, *not* gowl.
giaour, jowr, *not* jōōr.
gladiator, glad'i-a-tur, *not* glā'di-a-tur.
God, Gŏd, *not* gawd.
gondola, gŏn'do-la, *not* gon-dō'la.
Gotham, gō'tham, *not* göth'am.
government, guv'ern-ment, *not* guv'er-munt.
gratis, grā'tis.
guardian, gard'i-an, *not* gar-dēn'.
gubernatorial, gū-ber-na-to'ri-al, *not* gŭb-er-na-to'ri-al.
gums, gumz, *not* gōōmz.
gum-arabic, gum-ăr'a-bik, *not* gum-a-rā'bik.

H.

half, häf, *not* hăf.
harem, hā'rem, *not* hăr'em.
hearth, härth, *not* herth.
Herculean, her-ku'le-an, *not* her-ku-lē'an.
heroine, hĕr'o-in, *not* hĕr'o-in.
homage, hom'āj, *not* om'āj.
hostage, hŏs'tāj, *not* hōst'āj.
hostler, hŏs'ler, *not* haws'ler.
hundred, hun'dred, *not* hun'durd.
hurrah, hōōr-rä', *not* hur-raw'.
hydropathy, hi-drop'a-thi, *not* hi'dro-paht-i.
hymeneal, hi-me-nē'al, *not* hi-mē'ne-al.
hypocrisy, hi-pok'ri-si, *not* hi-pok'ri-si.

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I.

idyl, ĭ'dyl, *not* ĭd'ĭl.
impious, ĭm'pi-us, *not* im-pī'us.
impotent, im'po-tent, *not* im-po'tent.
inamorata, in-am-o-rä'ta, *not* in-am-o-rā'ta.
indisputable, in-dis'pu-ta-bl, *not* in-dis-put'a-bl.
industry, in'dus-trĭ, *not* in-dus'trĭ.
international, in-ter-nash'un-al, *not* in-ter-nā'shun-al.
intrigue, in-trēg', *not* in'trēg
irate, ī-rāt', *not* ī'rāt.
irreparable, ĭr-rep'a-ra-bl, *not* ĭr-re-par'a-bl.
Italian, ĭ-tal'yan, *not* ĭ-tal'yan.
italic, ĭ-tal'ik, *not* ĭ-tal ik.

J.

January, jan'u-a-rĭ, *not* jen'u-a-rĭ.
jaunt, jänt, *not* jawnt.
jugular, ju gu-lar, *not* jug u-lar.
juvenile, ju've-nĭl, *not* ju've-nĭl.

L.

lamentable, lam'en-ta-bl, *not* la-ment'a-bl.
lang-syne, läng-sīn', *not* lang-zīn'.
larynx, lăr'inks, *not* lā'rinks.
latent, lā'tent, *not* lăt'ent.
learned, lern'ed, *not* lernd'.
legendary, lĕj'an-da-rĭ, *not* lē'jen-da-rĭ.
leisure, lē'zhur, *not* lĕzh'ur.
lenient, lē'nĭ-ent, *not* len'ĭ-ent.
lethargic, le-thar'jik, *not* leth'ar-jik.
lithography, lith-og'ra-fĭ, *not* lith'o-graf-ĭ.
lyceum, li-se'um, *not* li'se-um.

M.

mamma, măm-mä', *not* măm'mă.
mangy, mān'jĭ, *not* măn'ji.
maniacal, ma-nī'ak-al, *not* ma'nĭ-ak-al.

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marital, măr'i-tal, *not* mär'i-tal.
maritime, măr'i-tīm, *not* mar'i-tīm.
masculine, mas'ku-lĭn, *not* mas'ku-līn.
massacred, mas'sa-kerd, *not* mas'sa-krēd.
mausoleum, maw-so-le'um, *not* mäw-so'le-um.
mercantile, mer'kan-tĭl, *not* mer'kan-tīl.
mineralogy, min-er-ăl'o-jĭ, *not* min-er-ol'o-jĭ.
misanthrope, mis'an-throp, *not* mis-an'throp.
mischievous, mis'chĭv-us, *not* mis-chēv'us.
mistletoe, miz'l-tō, *not* mis'l-tō
morale, mo-răl', *not* mo-rāl'.
moslem, moz'lem, *not* mos'lem
municipal, mu-nis'i-pl, *not* mu'nĭ-sip-al.
museum, mu-ze'um, *not* mu'ze-um.

N.

naïve, nä'ēv.
naivete, nä'ēv-tā.
nape, nāp, *not* năp.
nasal, na'zal, *not* na'sal.
nauseous, naw'shus, *not* naw'se-us.
neuralgia, nu-ral'ji-a, *not* nu ral'i-jĭ.
nuncio, nun'shi-o.

O.

obesity, o-bĕs'ĭ-tĭ, *not* o-be'sĭ-tĭ.
obligatory, ob'lĭ-gā-tory, *not* ob-lĭg'a-to-ry.
obsequies, ob'se-kwiz, *not* ob-se'kwiz.
off, ŏf, *not* awf.
orang-outang, o-rang'ōō-tang', *not* o'rang-ow'tang.
orion, o-rī'un, *not* o'rī-un.
orison, or'ĭ-zun, *not* or'ĭ-sun.
oxide, oks'īd.

P.

Palestine, pal'es-tĭn, *not* pal'es-tīn.
papa, pä-pä', *not* pä'pä.
Parisian, pā-riz'yan.

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pariah, pä'ri-ah.
pedal (adjective), pē'dal, *not* ped'al.
pedal (noun), ped'al, *not* pē'dal.
pedestal, ped'es-tal, *not* pe-des'tal.
penitentiary, pen-e-ten'sha-rĭ, *not* pen-e-ten'shĭ-a-rĭ.
Persian, per'shan, *not* per'zhan.
phonics, fon'iks, *not* fo'niks.
phosphorus, fos'fo-rus, *not* fos-fo'rus.
photographer, fo-tog'ra-fer, *not* fo'to-graf-er.
phrenologic, fren-o-loj'ik, *not* fre-no-loj'ik.
pianist, pĭ-ä'nist.
piano-forte, pĭ-ä'no-fōr'ta, *not* pĭ-an'o-fōrt.
pith, pith, *not* peth.
placard (noun and verb), pla-kard', *not* plak'ard.
plateau, plä-tō', *not* plăt-ō'.
plebeian, ple-be'yan, *not* ple'be-an.
prairie, prā'rĭ, *not* pā-rā'rĭ.
precedence, pre-sēd'ence, *not* pres'e-dence.
preface, pref ace, *not* pre face.
preposterous, pre-pos'ter-us, *not* pre-pos'trus.
privacy, prĭ'va-sĭ, *not* prĭv'a-sĭ.
profuse, pro-fūs', *not* pro-fūz'.
project (noun), proj'ekt, *not* pro'jekt.
prosaic, pro-za'ik, *not* pro-sa'ik.
protege, pro-tā-zhā', *not* prot'ā-zhā.
pyramidal, pĭ-ram'ĭ-dal, *not* pĭr'a-mĭd-al.
Pythoness, pĭth'o-nes, *not* pĭ'tho-nes.

Q.

quadrille, kwa-drĭl' or ka-drĭl', *not* kwod-drĭl'.
quoit, kwoit, *not* kwāt.

R.

radish, rad'ish, *not* red'ish.
raspberry, raz'ber-ri, *not* rawz'ber-ri.
rational, rash'un-al, *not* rā'shun-al.
recess, re-ses', *not* re'ses.
recognize, rek'og-nīz, *not* re-kog'nīz.

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reconnoitre, rek-on-noi'ter, *not* re-kon-noi'ter.
recourse, re-kōrs', *not* re'kōrs.
regular, reg'u-ler, *not* reg'ler.
reparable, rep'a-ra-bl, *not* re-par'a-bl.
research, re-serch', *not* re'serch.
retail (noun), re'tal.
retail (verb), re-tal'.
retributive, re-trĭb'u-tĭve, *not* ret'rĭ-bu-tĭv.
reveille, re văl'yā.
ribald, rib'ald, *not* rĭ'bald *nor* rib'awld.
rid, rid, *not* red.
rinse, rĭnse, *not* rĕnse.
root, rōōt, *not* rŏŏt.
roil, roil, *not* rĭl.
romance, ro-mance', *not* ro'mance.
ruffian, ruf'yan, *not* ruf'in.

S.

sacrament, sak'ra-ment, *not* sā'kra-ment.
sacrifice, sak'rĭ-fīz, *not* sā'krĭ-fīz.
sacrilegious, sak-rĭ-le'jus, *not* sak-rĭ-lij'us.
sagacious, sa-ga'shus, *not* sa-gash'us.
salary, sal'a-rĭ, *not* sal'rĭ.
salve, săv, *not* săv.
Samaritan, sa-măr'ĭ-tan, *not* sa-mā'rĭ-tan.
scarce, skarce, *not* skurce.
scared, skárd, *not* skárt.
secretary, sek're-ta-rĭ, *not* sek'ŭ-ta-rĭ.
siren, si'ren, *not* sĭr'en
slept, slĕpt, *not* slĕp.
soft, sŏft, *not* sawft.
soiree, swä-rā'.
souse, sows, *not* sowz.
stolid, stol'id, *not* sto'lid.
stupendous, stū-pen'dus, *not* stu-pen'du-us.
suavity, swăv'i-ti, *not* su-av'i-ti.
subpœna, sub-pe'na, *not* sup-pe'na.
supple, sup'l, *not* sŏŏ'pl.
surveillance, sur-văl'yănce.

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T.

tapestry, tăp'es-trĭ, *not* tăps'trĭ.
Tartarean, tar-ta're-an, *not* tar-ta-re'an.
telegraphy, te-leg'ra-fĭ.
temperament, tem'per-a-ment, *not* tem'per-munt.
tenacious, te-nā'shus, *not* te-nash'us.
tenet, ten'et, *not* tē'net.
tiara, tĭ-ā'ra, *not* tĭ-ä'ra.
ticklish, tik'lish, *not* tik'l-ish.
tiny, tĭ'nĭ, *not* tĭn ĭ' *nor* tē'nĭ.
tryst, trĭst, *not* trĭst.
turbine, tur'bĭn, *not* tur'bĭn.

U.

Uranus, u'ra-nus, *not* u-rā'nus.
usage, ūz'-aj, *not* ūs'-aj.

V.

vehement, ve'he-ment, *not* ve-he'ment.
veterinary, vet'er-e-na-rĭ, *not* vet'rĭ-na-rĭ.
vicar, vik'ar, *not* vi'kar.
viscount, vĭ'kownt, *not* vĭs'kownt.
vitriol, vit'rĭ-ul, *not* vit'rul.
visor, vĭz'ur, *not* vĭ'zur.
volatile, vol'a-tĭl, *not* vol'a-tĭl.

W.

wan, wŏn, *not* wăn.
was, wŏz, *not* wuz.
water, waw'ter, *not* wot'er.
wife's (possessive case), wĭfs, *not* wĭvz.
wiseacre, wĭz'a-ker, *not* wĭz-a'ker.
won't, wōnt, *not* wunt.
wrath, răth, *not* răth.
wrestle, res'l, *not* răs'l.

hŏŏd, ūse, ŭp, ow-l, aw-l, *th*-e, th-ink, ġo, ch-at.

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Y.

yacht, yŏt, *not* yăt.
yolk, yōk, *or* yōlk.
youths, yōōths, *not* yōōthz.
yclept, ĭ-klĕpt'.

Z.

zealot, zĕl'ut, *not* zēl'ut.
zenith, ze'nith, *not* zen'ith.
zoology, zo-ol'o-jĭ, *not* zō̆-ol'o-jĭ.
zoological, zo-o-loj'ĭ-kal, *not* zō̆-o-loj'ĭ-kal.
zouave, zō̆-äv' or zwäv, *not* zō̆-ăv'.

Difficult Proper Names.

Agassiz — ăg'-ă-see.
Alsace — äl-säs'.
Argyle — är-gīl'.
Avon — ā'-vŏn.
Baton Rouge — băt'-un rō̆zh'.
Blucher — blō̆'-ker.
Buddha — bō̆d'-dà.
Carnegie — kär-nĕg'-ē.
Crimea — krĭ-mē'-à.
Dumas — dü-mä'.
Geikie — gē'-kē.
Guizot — gē'-zō̆.
Hawaii — hä-wĭ'-ē.
Iago — ē-ä'-gō̆.
Jean Valjean — zhän văl-zhän.
Pall-Mall — pĕl-mĕl'.
Psyche — sĭ'-kē.
Schurz — shō̆rts.
Soult — sō̆lt.
Tolstoi — tol-stoi.
Wellesley — wĕlz'-lĭ.
Youghiogheny — yŏ-hō̆-gā'-nĭ.
Zeus — zūs.

āle, ăt, āre, ą̄ll, ēve, ĕnd, hĕr, īce, ĭnk, ō̆wn, ŏn, ō̆ze, hō̆̆d, ūse, ŭp, ow-l, aw-l, *th*-e, th-ink, ḡo, ch-at.

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LETTER WRITING.

A letter may be subdivided as follows: The Heading; the Introduction; the Body; the Conclusion, and the Superscription.

Heading.

The heading comprises the name of the place at which the letter is written and the date.

If writing from a place having a "free delivery," give name of street and number of door; if at a hotel or some well-known institution, its name may take the place of the street and door-number. If writing from a small place give the county and state.

Date.

The date comprises the month, the day of the month, and the year.

Begin the heading about an inch and one-half from the top of the page and near the middle of the sheet. If the heading is very short, it may occupy but one line. When the heading consists of more than one line, each line should begin a little to the right of the preceding one. Place the date on a line by itself when the heading comprises two or more lines. Begin each important word with a capital letter, set off each item by a comma, and close the whole heading with a period. The street number, the day of the month, and the year are written in figures. Business men sometimes write all the date in figures,

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but it is allowable only in the rush of business correspondence.

The following examples will illustrate the foregoing rules:

Utica, N. Y., 6–23–'94.

Scipioville,
Cayuga Co., N. Y.,
May 7, 1894.

---

742 *West Fourth St.,*
Williamsport, Pa.,
February 27, 1894.

Executive Chamber,
Albany, N. Y.,
May 7, 1894.

Hotel Iroquois,
Buffalo, N. Y.,
June 22, 1894.

Introduction.

The introduction comprises the Name, Title, Residence or place of business of the addressee, and the Salutation.

Titles of respect or professional titles should always be used unless addressing one of the sect of "Friends." Titles of respect and military titles are usually placed *before* the name; professional titles are sometimes placed before and sometimes after the name.

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Do not give a person two titles of the same rank; as Mr. John White, Esq., or, Mr. Dr. Smith.

Observe the following rules: Prefix *Mr.* to a man's name; *Messrs.* to the names of two or more gentlemen; *Miss* to that of an unmarried lady; *Mrs.* to that of a married lady; *Dr.* to that of a physician; *Rev.* to that of a clergyman, or *Rev. Mr.* if his christian name is unknown; *Rev. Dr.* to that of a Doctor of Divinity or; as *Rev. John Newman, D. D.; Hon.* to that of a member of Congress, a member of the State Legislature, a member of the Cabinet, the head of an executive department of the government, a minister abroad, a mayor, a judge, or the Vice-President of the U. S.

Prefix, *His Excellency*, to the name of the President, to that of a governor, and to that of an embassador.

Prefix *Prof.* to the name of a teacher of some especial science or branch of learning. Do not use this title indiscriminately.

Give the title of her husband to a married lady. If two titles are added to a name, give them in the order in which they were conferred; as *A. M., Ph. D., D. D., LL. D.* Do not use many titles; the lower is implied in the higher.

Salutations vary with the rank of the person addressed or the writer's intimacy with him. The following are the usual ones: For strangers — *Sir, Rev. Sir, General, Madam,* etc.; for acquaintances — *Dear Sir, Dear Madam,* etc.; for friends — *My dear Sir,*

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My dear Madam, My dear Whitney, etc.; for near relatives and dear friends, the more cordial or affectionate ones may be used. The salutation is generally omitted in business letters to an unmarried lady, though she may be addressed; as *Dear Miss White*, but the form "*Dear Miss*" should not be used alone.

The Address.— Begin on the line below the heading, or on the next line but one, and on the left-hand side of the sheet. In a very formal letter, or to an intimate friend, the address may be placed at the bottom. Begin each line of the address a little to the right of the preceding one. Begin the salutation a little to the right of the marginal line when the address occupies three lines; a little to the right of the beginning of the second line when the address occupies two lines; a little to the right of the marginal line when the address consists of one line; on the marginal line when the address is written below. Begin each important word of the salutation with a capital letter and set off the whole by a comma and dash, or by the colon.

Begin all important words in the address with capital letters; set off all the items by a comma; it being an abbreviated sentence, close the whole with a period.

Addresses and salutations:

The Rt. Rev. A. Cleveland Cox, D. D.,
Buffalo, N. Y.
Sir:

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Miss Helen A. Browne,
642 *Brighton Ave.,*
Rochester, N. Y.

We are, etc.

Helen A. Browne,
642 *Brighton Ave.,*
Rochester, N. Y.

Dear Miss Browne: We are, etc.

J. M. Stilwell, M. D.,
123 *Cortlandt St.,*
Chicago, Ill.

Dear Sir:

Body.

Begin the body of the letter on the same line when the address consists of three lines or more; otherwise on the line below.

Style.

Business letters should be brief and perspicuous. Let each sentence be short and to the point. Avoid all flourishes. Be sure to give the town, county, state, and date of writing. In ordering goods, state carefully just what you want and how and where you wish them sent. Do not mix other matters in an order; let it be on a sheet alone. In letters of business write on but one side of the sheet. Send money by express, money order, draft,

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or registered letter, and always state the amount. Answer a letter promptly, acknowledge its receipt, mention its date, and take up all points therein requiring your notice. Enclose stamp when the reply benefits you more than the person addressed.

Letters of friendship should be easy, natural, and familiar.

Letters of introduction or of recommendation should never be sealed.

Observe the following: Use simple words; use words that express your meaning clearly and properly; be careful in the use of pronouns and see that they have their appropriate case form; avoid expressions that are not sanctioned by good usage; and use no more words than are required to express your meaning clearly.

In the arrangement, place the subject before the object when there would be any doubt which was the subject and which the object if the position of the words was reversed. Place all word, phrase or clause modifiers where their position will leave no doubt as to what they modify.

Remember "a sentence is not a bag to be stuffed with miscellaneous matter, its value increasing with the quantity crowded into it." See "Wrong use of words" for common mistakes.

Conclusion.

The conclusion consists of the complimentary close and the signature. The forms of complimentary

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close vary with the kind of correspondence and the relations of the writer and the one addressed. The ones most used in friendship are, *Sincerely yours*, *Truly your friend*, *Cordially yours*, and *Yours affectionately*. Ordinary correspondence employs the following: *Yours*, *Yours truly*, *Truly yours*, *Yours respectfully*, *Very respectfully yours*, etc.

A lady in writing to strangers should give her title —*Miss* or *Mrs.*— as (*Miss*) *Mary A. Knight.*

Superscription.

Begin the name a little to the left of the centre of the envelope; let each line slope to the right, as in the headings, placing the post-office on the second line, the county on the third, and the State on the fourth near the lower right-hand corner of the envelope. The county may also be written on the same line as the State but in the left-hand corner.

In a city address, the county is omitted and the door number and street occupy the second line. Titles following the name should be separated from it and from each other by the comma.

Each line should end with a comma, except the last one which should be closed with a period.

Mr. S. G. Pollard,
Belmont,
Allegany Co.,
N. Y.

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Mr. S. G. Pollard,
Belmont,
Alle. Co. N. Y.

Mr. W. H. Percey, Jr.,
876 Linwood Ave.,
Rochester, N. Y.

Mr. Thomas H. Wentworth,
123 Euclid Ave.,
Cleveland, Ohio.

Thomas Faulkner, A. M., Ph. D., M. D.,
c/o Royal Medical Council.
London, England.

W. H. Harding, Esq.,
1134 Prospect Ave.,
Politeness of Mr. H. A. May.
Chicago, Ill.

Mrs. Dr. Henry A. Brown,
Presented.

The Matthews-Northrup Co.,
Buffalo, N. Y.
Introducing,
Mr. H. A. Swift.

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Form of address for both husband and wife where the husband has title: Dr. and Mrs. C. H. Smith; where both have titles, Drs. John A. and Sarah J. Brown; where the wife alone has title, Mr. C. H. and Dr. Helen A. Cooke; wife alone with title, Mrs. Dr. Helen A. Smith.

Unmarried lady with title, Miss Dr. Helen A. Knight; Miss Helen A. Knight, M. D.; Rev. Miss Helen A. Knight; Rev. Helen A. Knight.

Put your address in the upper left-hand corner of the envelope, and if not delivered, the letter will be returned to you at the expiration of thirty days without going to the dead letter office.

Letters of introduction or recommendation should not be sealed, and should be given with due caution, as the writer, in a measure, vouches for the bearer.

Remitting money.

The Eagle Publishing Co.,
Albany, N. Y.

Gentlemen— Enclosed find draft on New York bank, for $187.23, *with which you will please credit my account.*

Very respectfully,
Thomas Payne.

Acknowledging remittance.

Mr. Thomas Payne,
Cayuga, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

Your favor of the 20th inst. containing draft for One Hundred Eighty-seven and 23|100 *dollars* ($187.23) *is duly received. Please accept our thanks for your promptness.*

Respectfully yours,
The Eagle Publishing Co.

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Order for goods.

Richfield Springs, N. Y., June 4, 1894.

C. H. Ditson & Co.,
867 *Broadway,*
New York.

Messrs.— Enclosed find $2.00 for which please send me by American Ex. two copies of "Piano Classics."

Respectfully yours,
(Miss) Florence M. Woods.

Application for a position.

Cleveland, Ohio, May 18, 1894.

Mr. James L. Morgan,
Secretary of School Board.

.....

Sir: — I am informed that there is a vacancy in the..... of your school, and I beg leave to offer myself as a candidate for the position.

I was graduated at.....in.....and have taught steadily since then. I hand you, herewith, testimonials from A. S. Draper, Supt. of Schools of this city, and I am permitted to refer you to.....the president of the above named institution.

Should you desire a personal interview, I shall be glad to present myself at such time and place as will best suit you.

Very respectfully,
(Miss) Mary H. Ives.

Request for testimonial.

Williamsport, Pa., March 24, 1894.

Secretary of Board of Education,

.....

.....

Dear Sir: — As I am about to make an application for a position in a school nearer home, I venture to ask if you will be

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so kind as to give me a line stating with what success I met while discharging my duties as teacher in your school.

If the reply is as favorable as I hope it will be, I shall find it of great value to me.

Trusting that you will kindly favor me with an early reply, I beg to remain,

Very respectfully yours,

Ellen H. Bronson.

Recommendation.

To whom it may concern:

I have known the bearer, Mr. Henry A. Mills, for a long time and it gives me pleasure to speak of the high esteem in which he is held in this community.

His habits are of the best, his intelligence is of a high order, and we have ever found him honest and conscientious in the performance of his duty.

I take pleasure in recommending him to any one who requires the services of an active, energetic, and trustworthy young man.

John D. Stone.

Request for more time in settling an account.

Pittsburgh, Pa., May 23, 1894.

Wheeler & Crossman,
Buffalo, N. Y.

Gentlemen: — I am very sorry that circumstances I could not forsee have rendered it impossible for me to settle my account with you before the last of next month.

Regretting that I am forced to disappoint you in the matter, I am,

Most respectfully yours,

James P. Carter.

Request for catalogue.

Wellsville, N. Y., June 25, 1894.

James M. Milne, Ph. D.,
Oneonta, N. Y.

Sir: — Will you please send me a copy of your latest catalogue?

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I expect to attend school the coming year and your institution has been highly recommended to me.

Yet respectfully yours,
T. W. Olney.

Request for settlement.

Rochester, N. Y., March 17, 1894.

H. W. Powers, Esq.,
Hartford, Conn.

Dear Sir: — We hand you, herewith, statement of your account and regret that unexpected demands compel us to ask you for an early settlement.

Trusting you will appreciate our position and thanking you for the attention you have always given us, we are,

Yours respectfully,
Weed & Browne.

Letter of introduction.

Carlisle, Ky., May 23, 1894.

Mr. James H. Wade,
Elmira, N. Y.

Dear Sir: — This will introduce to you Mr. Charles A. Brown, of this place, who is a warm friend of mine.

He expects to remain in your city for a short time and any favors you may show him will render me your debtor.

Cordially yours,
M. J. White.

Acknowledging receipt of goods.

Messrs. Brown & Baker,
23 Walnut Street,
Syracuse, N. Y.

Gentlemen: — Your favor of the 23d, enclosing B. of L. and invoice, was duly received.

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The goods were all that could be desired, and we thank you for your promptness in filling your order.

Enclosed find in payment Express Money Order for Thirty-one and 25–100 dollars ($31.25).

Please acknowledge the receipt of the same and oblige,

Yours respectfully,

Frank J. Harvey.

Urging settlement.

Hornellsville, January 13, 1894.

Mr. Henry F. Burdick,
Olean, N. Y.

Dear Sir:—We hand you herewith statement of your account for the last month, which we trust you will find correct.

May we ask that you will give the matter your earliest attention and oblige us by sending your check for the amount.

Most respectfully yours,

Brown & Babcock.

Batavia, N. Y., May 5, 1894.

Mr. James C. Harter,
Brockport, N. Y.

Dear Sir: — Enclosed find statement of your account, the amount of which is so trifling that it has probably escaped your notice.

Thanking you in advance for the prompt attention which we are sure you will show it, we are,

Very truly yours,

Williams & Morgan.

Subscribing to a paper.

Rochester, N. Y., May 27, 1894.

Perry, Mason & Co.,
The Youth's Companion,
Boston, Mass.:

Gentlemen: — Enclosed find Money Order of $1.75 for one year's subscription to your paper.

Archie K. Baker.

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English form of letter.

Lincoln's Inn Fields,
London, W. C.,
16th day of November, 1893.

Sir:—I regret that I am unable to give you any information concerning Thomas Faulkner, M. D.

There is not a Royal Medical Council in this country; there is the General Medical Council, but Dr. Faulkner was never president of it.

Respectfully,
Sibert Cowell,
Assistant Secretary.

V. M. Allen, Esq.

Letter of condolence.

Williamsport, Pa., March 26, 1894.

Dear Friend:—I learn with deep sorrow of your recent bereavement.

Your loss is, indeed, heavy, and his many friends realize how widely he will be missed outside your own home circle.

True, earnest, gifted, and generous, "none knew him but to love him; none named him but to praise." The heavy shadow of a great sorrow is upon you now, but the light will yet break thro' and He who "doeth all things well" has promised us a happy reunion in the great beyond.

I know how little consolation mere words convey to an aching heart, but I offer you my tenderest sympathy.

Very sincerely yours,

Mrs. H. B. Newcomb.

RESOLUTIONS.

Resolutions of clubs, societies, etc., on the death of members, should be simple, concise, and consistent with the character of the deceased. Carefully abstain from obvious exaggeration and avoid either extreme in length.

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Begin the preamble with WHEREAS, and set forth the occasion for the following resolutions. Begin each resolution with *Resolved*, or *Be it resolved*, and affix the names of the committee to the whole.

WHEREAS, The, etc.

Resolved, That, etc.

THE WRONG USE OF WORDS.

Use the simplest words that will correctly convey the sense intended. Use words concerning whose meaning there can be no doubt, for serious trouble often arises when two persons give to one word different meanings.

A, is used before all words beginning with consonants except those beginning with silent *h*, or when the word beginning with *h* is accented on some other syllable than the first.

Acoustics is, not are. Names of sciences ending with *ics* are now regarded as singular in number. Example: Mathematics, economics, politics, physics, gymnastics, etc.

Agriculturalist, for agriculturist. The first is never correct.

Ain't, is incorrect. Avoid it.

Allude, for mention. Allude means to *hint* at in passing.

Allow, for say or assert. This use is incorrect.

An, is to be used before all vowel sounds, silent *h*, and when the word bginning with *h* is accented on

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some other syllable than the first. Example: An eagle. An honorable man.

And, for *to*. Try *to* do it, not try *and* do it. Come *to* see me, not come *and* see me.

Anyhow, is at all times questionable.

Appreciate, for rise in value. The first, though sometimes so used, is incorrect.

Avocation, for *vocation*. A man's business is his *vocation*, and pleasures calling him from it are his *avocations;* as, fishing, boating, hunting.

At length, for at last. To hear from a person *at length* means to hear minutely or in detail.

Balance, for *remainder*. *Balance* refers to the ledger account and does not properly convey the same meaning as *remainder*. Example: He spent the *balance* (for *remainder*) of his time there.

Beginner, not *new* beginner.

Between you and I, for between you and *me*. Pronouns must have their proper case form.

Bound, for *determined*. Example: He is *bound* (i. e., *determined*) to go west.

Calculate, is not to be used for intend. Example: I *calculate* (intend) to go.

Can, *may*. *Can* expresses power, ability, or force. Permission is asked or given by *may*. *Can* I do it, means am I able to do it. *May* I do it, means have I permission to do it. Example: Can (may) I take your book?

Correspond with, correspond to. *Correspond with*

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relates to the exchange of letters. *Correspond to*, signifies resemblance.

Commence to. Omit to. We *begin* to write; we *commence* writing.

Couple, signifies two things united or having some relation to each other and not *number* alone.

Depot. Station is the better word when a building for passengers is meant.

Differ with, in opinion; *differ from* in appearance.

Donate, for give. This use of the word is not in good repute.

Done, did. I have *done* it. You have *done* it. He has *done* it. I *did* it. You *did* it. He *did* it. Use *done* only with has, had, or have.

Don't. A contraction of *do not* and properly used only when the latter is correct.

Enthuse, for inspirit. The first is not sanctioned by good usage.

Every, is always singular in number. Let *every* one do *his* (not their) own work.

Execute, does not mean put to death. The law is *executed* when the criminal is hanged or imprisoned.

Farther, further. Farther properly signifies distance, *further*, degree or quantity. As he walked *farther* he saw they were *further* along with the work

Fellow countrymen. What is the difference betweer this and countrymen?

Fire, for throw. Nothing can be *fired* without *fire*

First two, not two first.

Gents. Vulgar.

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Get, signifies possession obtained by exertion. Do not use it any other manner. He has (not has got) red hair. He will be left, not *get* left.

Graduate. Students do not *graduate*, but *are graduated.*

Guess, for *think.* *A guess* is an opinion formed without sufficient reason, and it is wrong to use the word if you do not wish to express doubt or uncertainty.

Had I been, not had I have been.

Had better, *had rather*, for *would better* and *would rather.* There is some authority for the use of the first, but the latter are the more modern, and how can future action be expressed by the use of a verb which signifies past and completed action?

Had ought. Never use had. Say *ought*, *ought not.*

Haven't no. Omit no. Do not use two words *meaning no* in the same sentence.

Healthy, *healthful*, *wholesome.* *Healthy* refers to living things. Example: The man is *healthy.* The food is *wholesome.* The surroundings are *healthful.*

Hear, for *listen.* We *hear* without exertion. We *listen* that we may *hear.*

It is I (not *me*). It is *he* (not *him*). It is *she* (not *her*).

Last, for *latest.* I have received your *latest* (not *last*) letter.

Lie, *lay.* Remember *lay* expresses transitive action, and *lie* means rest. We *lay* the book on the table and the book *lies* where we have placed it.

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Learn, for *teach*. *Learn* means to acquire knowledge; *teach*, to impart it.

Like, for *as*. *As* (not *like*) the others did.

Loan. "This word is a noun, the verbal form of which is lend."—WHITE.

Mussulmen, for *Mussulmans*. This word forms its plural the same as German. Example: Several *Mussulmans* were present.

Mute, *dumb*. *Mute* denies the act of speech, *dumb* the power of speech.

Need to have. Omit *to*.

None means no one. Do not use with plural verb. Example: *None* is (not are) satisfied.

Over his signature, for *under his signature*. Writs are issued *under* the authority of the court, though the *signature* is at the bottom of the writ: a soldier fights *under* his country's flag, or by its authority: a letter is issued *under* or by the authority of the writer's *signature*.

Ought, *ought not*, never *had ought* or *hadn't ought to*.

Party, for person. Avoid it.

Quite, is not to be used for nearly. *Quite* means wholly, completely, or thoroughly.

Restive, for restless. *Restive* signifies stubborn, unwilling to move, "balky."

Remember, *recollect*. We *remember* without effort and *recollect* with some exertion.

Set, *sit*. *Set* expresses transitive action and *sit* means rest. Example: *Set* the lamp on the table.

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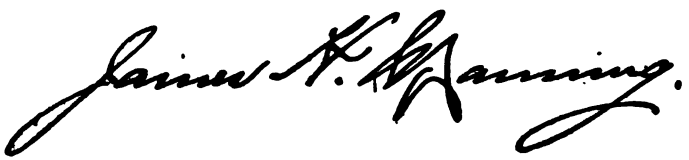
(Action.) *Sit* down to rest. (Rest.) We *set* the hen and the hen *sits*. The coat *sits* well.

So, as. Use *so* after all negatives. Example: He is not *so* well.

Such, for *so*. Example: I never saw *so* (not *such*) strong a man.

Two good ones. *Two ones*? How can this be?

Try, for *make*. *Make* (not *try*) an experiment.



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Engraved for Practical Book or Practical People.

Julia M. Dewey.

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Manners and Usages of Society.

By Mrs. JULIA M. DEWEY.

"High thoughts seated in a heart of courtesy."— SIDNEY.

"Love as brethren, be pitiful, be courteous."— ST. PAUL.

"Prepare yourself for the world as the athletæ used to do for their exercises; oil your mind and your manners to give them the necessary suppleness and flexibility; strength alone, will not do it. All your Greek can never advance you from secretary to envoy, or from envoy to ambassador; but your address, your air, your manner, if good, may."— LORD CHESTERFIELD TO HIS SON.

"Give a boy address and accomplishments and you give him the mastery of palaces and fortunes wherever he goes; he has not the trouble of earning or owning them; they solicit him to enter and possess.— EMERSON.

William of Wyckham, the founder of the famous Winchester School in 1393, had inscribed on the buildings: "Manners maketh the man."

Definition of a Gentleman.

IT is almost a definition of a gentleman to say that he is one who never inflicts pain. This description is both refined, and, so far as it goes, accurate. He is mainly occupied in merely removing the obstacles which hinder the free and unembarrassed action of those about him, and he concurs with their movements rather than takes the initiative himself.

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His benefits may be considered as parallel to what are called the comforts or conveniences in arrangements of a personal nature, like an easy chair, or a good fire, which do their best in dispelling cold and fatigue, though nature provides both means of rest and animal heat without them.

The true gentleman, in like manner, carefully avoids whatever may cause a jar or a jolt in the minds of those with whom he is cast,—all clashing of opinion, or collusion of feeling, all restraint, or suspicion, or gloom, or resentment, his great concern being to make every one at ease, and at home. He has his eyes on all his company; he is tender toward the bashful, gentle toward the distant, and merciful toward the absurd. He can recollect to whom he is speaking; he guards against unseasonable allusions, or topics which may irritate; he is seldom prominent in conversation, and never wearisome. He makes light of favors when he does them, and seems to be receiving when conferring. He never speaks of himself except when compelled, never defends himself by a mere retort; he has no ears for slander or gossip, is scrupulous in imparting to those who interfere with him, and interprets everything for the best.

He is never mean or little in his disputes, never takes unfair advantage, never mistakes personalities, or sharp sayings for arguments, or insinuates evil which he dares not say out.

From a long-sighted prudency, he observes the maxim of the ancient sage, that we should ever con-

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duct ourselves toward our enemy as if he were one day to be our friend. He has too much good sense to be affronted at insults. He is too well employed to remember injuries, and too indolent to bear malice.

He is patient, forbearing and resigned, on philosophical principles; he submits to pain because it is inevitable; to bereavement because it is irreparable, and to death because it is his destiny.

CARDINAL NEWMAN.

COURTESY.

This is love in society. Love in relation to etiquette. "Love doth not behave itself unseemly." Politeness has been defined as love in trifles. Courtesy is said to be love in little things. And the one secret of politeness is to love. Love cannot behave itself unseemly. You can put the most untutored persons into the highest society, and if they have a reservoir of love in their hearts they will not behave themselves unseemly. They simply cannot do it. Carlyle said of Robert Burns that there was no truer gentleman in Europe than the ploughman poet. It was because he loved everything, the mouse, and the daisy, and all the things great and small that God had made. So with this simple passport, he could mingle with any society, and enter courts and palaces from his little cottage on the banks of the Ayr. You know the meaning of the word "gentleman." It means a gentle man,—a man who does things gently, with love. And this is the whole art and mys-

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tery of it. The gentle man cannot, in the nature of things, do an ungentle, an ungentlemanly thing. The ungentle soul, the inconsiderate, unsympathetic nature cannot do anything else. "Love doth not behave itself unseemly." — HENRY DRUMMOND IN "THE GREATEST THING IN THE WORLD."

MANNERS.

How far are manners to be made a matter of rule? *From within out* — is the fundamental law in manners; still there is an external view of the subject quite worth heeding.

There is a certain fine robustness of character that is prone to pay little heed to the "thou shalt," and "thou shalt not" of society; and there is a certain spirituality that says: "Make your own rules."

There is much truth in both positions, but it is delicate ground to tread on; one needs to be very sure-footed and quick-eyed to avoid falls. Upon the whole, and for the most of us, it is better there should be a code of social laws, well understood and rather carefully observed; at least, one should always have them at hand, ready for use. There are many things that help to make life easy and agreeable that are not taught by intuition. Nor could we live together in mutual convenience unless we agreed upon certain arbitrary rules as to daily intercourse. If it is well to have these common habits and interchanges of courtesy, it is well to have them in the best form, even to punctiliousness. Without doubt, what are

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called the manners of society are not only a part of gentlemanhood, but are extremely convenient. I am not about to indicate these rules, but I may suggest that in all matters of dress, of care of the person, of carriage, of command of the features and voice and eyes, and of what are called the ways of good society, it is of great use to be well informed. They will not take you one step on the way, but they will smooth it, and the lack of them may block it altogether.

If one is centrally true, kind, honorable, delicate and considerate, he will almost without fail have manners that will take him into any circle where culture and taste will prevail over folly.

Still, the inward seed needs training. It should levy on all graceful forms, on practice and discipline, on observation, on fashion even, and make them subserve its native grace.

Watch those of excellent reputation in manners. Keep your eyes open when you go to the metropolis, and learn its grace; or, if you live in the city, when you go to the country, mark the higher quality of simplicity. Catch the temper of the great masters of literature; the nobility of Scott, the sincerity of Thackeray, the heartiness of Dickens, the tenderness of MacDonald, the delicacy of Tennyson, the grace of Longfellow, the repose of Shakespeare. Manners in this high sense, and so learned, take one far on in the world. They are irresistible. If you meet the king he will recognize you as a brother.

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They are a defense against insult. All doors fly open when he who wears them approaches. They cannot be bought. They cannot be learned as from a book; they cannot pass from lip to lip; they come from within, and from a *within* that is grounded in truth, honor, delicacy, kindness and consideration.

T. T. MUNGER.

There is no personal defect which a well-bred manner, a pleasant voice, and that gentle kindness which shines through the homeliest face, will not make loveable. "He gentil is," said old Chaucer, "who doth gentil dedes," and the true gentleman, or gentlewoman, always has a large following of lovers and friends.—SELECTED.

Do not underrate polish. A diamond in the rough may possess value, but a diamond after the cutter's tool has brought out its smoothness and beauty will command a much greater price in the market.

—MARGARET SANGSTER.

William Wirt's letter to his daughter on the "small, sweet courtesies of life," contains a passage from which a deal of happiness might be learned: "I want to tell you a secret. The way to make yourself pleasing to others is to show that you care for them. The world is like the miller at Mansfield, who cared for nobody because nobody cared for him. And the whole world will serve you so if you give them the same cause. Let every one, therefore, see that you

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do care for them by showing them what Sterne so happily calls the 'small, sweet courtesies,' in which there is no parade; whose voice is to still, to ease; and which manifest themselves by tender and affectionate looks, and little kind acts of attention, giving others the preference in every little enjoyment at the table, in the field, walking, sitting, or standing."

— SELECTED.

The society of women is the school of good manners.—GOETHE.

VISITING.

To friends or very intimate acquaintances visits may be left to create their own etiquette.

Not to go too frequently to the same house; not to stay too long when you do go; to let no intimacy overstep the bounds of courtesy, are facts that should be appreciated. It is hardly in good taste to volunteer a visit to a friend unless you have what is called a "standing invitation," with every reason to believe it was sincerely and cordially given. Even when convinced that such an invitation is sincere, it is best to apprise you hostess of the exact day and hour when she may expect you, and always with the proviso if it be convenient to receive you at that time, and with the expressed wish that she will tell you candidly if it is not.

However close your intimacy, an unexpected arrival may possibly produce inconvenience to your

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hostess. When visits are attempted as agreeable surprises they are very seldom agreeable to the surprised.

Having received an invitation, reply to it immediately. Do not keep your friends waiting day after day, in uncertainty, not knowing whether you mean to accept or decline it.

It is in good form for the one who invites a visitor to mention the length of the visit. When a definite time is not stated, it is often awkward for the visitor to know whether the invitation is for a day, a week, or longer.

If the time is not mentioned by your hostess, when you arrive take occasion to mention how long you intend to stay, that your hostess may make her plans accordingly.

When the allotted time has expired, do not be persuaded to extend it, unless you are earnestly, and with undoubted sincerity invited to do so. Be careful not to make your friends "twice glad."

On the other hand, there should not be undue urging on the part of the hostess or others that the visitor should prolong her visit beyond the time she has fixed upon. This is rudeness rather than hospitality. "Welcome the coming, speed the parting guest," is a maxim to be followed.

On your first evening enquire about the hours of the house that you may be ready to comply with them. Rise early enough to be dressed in time for breakfast. Accommodate yourself to the régime of

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the family. Notwithstanding all that may be said to you about feeling perfectly at home, and considering your friend's house your own, be very careful not to do so literally.

Avoid encroaching upon your friend's time. Do not expect her to devote an undue portion of it to you. When she is occupied with household cares, do not intrude upon her, but amuse yourself with reading, or some occupation of your own until you see that it is convenient for the family to have you join them.

Try to assist in entertaining your entertainers. A silent visitor, whether from stupidity, or indolence, or natural taciturnity, is never an agreeable one.

While you are a guest at the house of a friend do not pass too much of your time in visiting at other houses unless she is with you.

Do not take the liberty, when a guest yourself, of inviting any of your friends to spend a day or days with you.

On concluding your visit tell your entertainers that it has been pleasant, and express your gratitude for the kindness you have received from them and the hope that they will give you an opportunity for reciprocating.

After reaching home write, within two or three days, to the friend at whose house you have been staying, telling her of your journey home, and again alluding to your pleasant visit.

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After the visit is over, be careful not to repeat anything that has come to your knowledge which your entertainers might wish to remain unknown. Having been their guest and partaken of their hospitality, you are bound, in honor, to keep silent on any topic that might injure them in the slightest degree, if repeated.

The hostess and members of her household have specific duties as entertainers. The visitor should be met at the station either by the hostess, or a member of her family, or if that is impracticable, by a servant who should secure a conveyance for the guest, and attend to the luggage.

So far as is possible every thing in the guest-room should be arranged for the convenience and comfort of its occupant. For such deficiencies as may be avoided or remedied, refrain from making the absurd apology that you consider your guest "no stranger," or that you regard her as "one of the family." You are in duty bound to do whatever you can for the comfort and pleasure of your visitor.

You should not, however, make your efforts in this direction so apparent as to lead your guest to feel that you are exerting yourself for her.

When your visitor is about to leave, make every thing ready for her departure. Let her be called at an early hour if she is to leave in the morning. Send a servant to strap and bring down her trunk, and see that an early breakfast is prepared and some of the family present to share it with the departing guest.

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Have a cab or carriage at the door in due time, and let some member of the family accompany her to the station, procure tickets and attend to the baggage.

Visits of Ceremony.

Almost every kind of social gathering is now called an "At Home," with the exception of a dinner, or wedding breakfast. These "At Homes" are taking the place of the more elaborate entertainments of days gone by, and are much more convenient, inexpensive, and sensible. There are dancing "At Homes," musical "AtHomes," conversational "At Homes," and many others, and any of them may take place in the afternoon or evening. The etiquette of all is precisely the same. Cards, with the name of the hostess, stating the date and hour of the "At Home," are sent out a fortnight or a week previous to the date, according to circumstances. If the entertainment is to consist of music, the word "Music" appears on one corner of the card; if dancing, the word "Dancing." If the hostess wishes to know how many guests she is to entertain, she writes on the card — "The favor of an answer is requested." R. S. V. P. is now rarely used. This request should be answered without delay. If the "At Home" is in the afternoon, ladies do not remove their bonnets. Refreshments are served in the dining-room, where the guests repair during the intervals of music, etc. Small sandwiches, wafers, cakes, tea and coffee, bon-bons, and salted almonds are the ordinary refreshments. Fresh

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fruit is also on the list, and when used, plates are necessary. Otherwise, unless ices are included in the refreshments, no plates are used.

At small five o'clock teas, tea, coffee or chocolate is passed in the drawing-room, and not ordinarily by a servant. The hostess dispenses the tea herself, and if gentlemen are present, they naturally undertake the task of waiting upon the guests. In the absence of gentlemen, any friends of the hostess will volunteer to assist her. Gloves are not removed when tea and wafers only are taken. At an afternoon tea, the hostess may wear a "tea-gown" or not, but the guests are much more elegant in rather plain, high, and close-fitting dresses.

Gentlemen should not appear at an afternoon entertainment in evening dress. As to wearing gloves, the fashion for gentlemen is variable, and if one is in doubt in regard to the prevailing custom, he must ascertain from some one who knows.

Calls and Cards.

Different writers on etiquette differ in regard to the matter of first calls. As a rule, however, residents call first upon new comers. In Washington the custom is reversed, and new-comers call first upon residents. Calling upon strangers should be considered not merely an act of politeness, but of common humanity. In a place of any size, one cannot call upon all new-comers, but a little thought, and a little sense of obligation, will lead to a wise

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discrimination in this matter, and absolve many from the charge of indifference and incivility. First calls should be returned within a week. In cities and large towns it is sometimes allowable to send cards instead of calling. This is not allowable in returning first calls.

When calling, a lady should send in her card by a servant, but should not give it to the one for whom the call is intended should she meet her at the door. When a gentleman calls on ladies who are at home, if he knows them well he does not send in his card, but his name. If he does not know them well, he sends in a card. In leaving cards it is not necessary to leave seven or eight, should the call be made upon that number, but it is customary to leave two, one for the lady of the house, the other for other members of the family or guests. Sometimes, to avoid leaving many cards, the end of the card is rolled over toward the name, and this indicates that the call is intended for all.

In returning calls, observe the exact etiquette of the person who made the first call. A call must not be returned by a card only, nor a card by a call. If a personal call is made, return it by a personal call; if a card is left without an enquiry as to whether you are at home, return the same courtesy. If a caller leaves the cards of the gentlemen of her family, return those of the gentlemen of your family.

A lady often leaves her own and two of her husband's cards, one for the lady, and one for the gen-

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tlemen of the house. When cards have been left once in the season it is not necessary to leave them again during the season.

After a dinner party a guest must call in person, and enquire for the hostess. After balls, amateur concerts, theatricals, "at homes," etc., unless personal calls are made, cards should be left by all invited guests within a week after the invitations, especially if the invited guest has been obliged to decline. After a "tea" (unless it is a "high tea"), it is not considered necessary to call nor to leave cards, but the compliment should be returned by giving a tea and inviting all of one's entertainers.

In sending to enquire for a person's health, cards may be sent by a servant, with a kindly message. When gentlemen who are calling do not find ladies in, they should leave cards for the master and mistress of the house and for the young ladies.

No gentleman should call on a lady unless she asks him to do so, or unless he brings a letter of introduction, or unless he accompanies a friend who is sufficiently intimate to invite him to call. If he receives an invitation from a stranger, to dinner, or to a large party, he is bound to send an immediate answer, and to call after the entertainment. After any entertainment (not by a stranger), a gentleman should leave his card in person, instead of sending it.

If a lady is invited to any entertainment by a new acquaintance, whether the invitation comes through a friend or not, she should immediately leave cards

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and send either a regret or acceptance. To lose time in this matter is a rudeness. Whether she attends the entertainment or not, she should call after it, within a week.

If invited to a reception or to a wedding, and obliged to decline, it is proper to send a *visiting card on the day of the reception or wedding*. Calls of congratulation should be made without delay, as also visits of condolence. Unless one is very intimate in a family, it is in better taste to leave a card than to intrude upon private sorrow.

The time of calling must, in every case, be settled by the custom of the place. After two o'clock and before six is, however, generally safe.

It is better to deliver a letter of introduction in person, but if the letter is sent, enclose a card with your address upon it.

A card of courtesy should be sent with flowers, books or any small gifts which are freely offered among intimate friends. The gift, however small, should be acknowledged at once, but *not* by a card. A note should be written.

The Etiquette of Weddings.

The invitations to a wedding should be sent by the parents of the bride, or if the parents are not living, by the people who are to give the wedding. These invitations should be engraved on note-paper and sent two weeks before the wedding. If friends are invited to a wedding breakfast, that fact is stated on

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a separate card enclosed in the same envelope. There is also often enclosed another card stating when and where the bride will receive her friends after the wedding journey. If the wedding ceremony is at the church, it is probable that many more will be invited to the church than to the house. This should not give offense. To these invitations the invited guests make no response save to go, or leave cards, unless there is a breakfast at which the guests sit at table. In that case an invitation should be accepted or declined, that the hostess may arrange her table accordingly. All invited guests are expected to call on the married couple, and if possible to invite them during the year. If the wedding is in church, the bride is generally driven to the church in a carriage with her father. Her mother and other relations precede her and take the front seat. The bridesmaids also precede her, and await her in the chancel of the church. The ushers then form the procession — first the ushers, two and two; then the bridesmaids, two and two; then the bride, leaning on her father's right arm. As the cortege reaches the altar, the ushers break ranks and go to the right and left, the bridesmaids do the same, leaving a space for the bridal pair. The clergyman is already in his place, and the bridegroom, who has been waiting, takes his place by the bride. After the ceremony the bridal pair walk down the aisle, arm-in-arm, and are driven home. The rest follow. After congratulations and some conversation, refreshments are announced. The bride and groom

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lead the guests to the dining-room, then come the groom's father with the bride's mother, the bride's father with the groom's mother, the best man with the first bridesmaid, then the bridesmaids with attendant gentlemen, and then other invited guests. After giving an hour and a half to her guests, the bride retires to change her dress. She soon returns in her traveling dress, and is met by the groom, who has also changed his dress, and they are then driven to the station.

Of course there are quieter weddings, and more simple arrangements. Many brides prefer to be married in traveling dress and hat, and leave immediately without congratulations. Weddings should be gorgeous, elegant, plain or simple, according to the wishes and circumstances of the most interested parties.

The bride's dress is a matter of her own taste. Whether the wedding is in the morning or evening the bride may be in full dress. The groom should not wear a dress-coat before seven in the evening.

Ladies should not remove their bonnets at a wedding breakfast, but if a reception is given in the evening, guests are expected to be in evening dress. In the matter of gloves gentlemen should conform to the prevailing fashion.

At a wedding breakfast the refreshments should consist of both hot and cold dishes — such as bouillon, salads, oysters, ices, jellies, etc.

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If an evening wedding reception is given, refreshments are similar to those of other evening entertainments. They may be elaborate, or simple. In either case the wedding cake is quite essential, and should be cut by the bride. Wedding cake is no longer sent about. It is neatly packed in boxes, and each guest takes one if she likes, as she leaves the house.

It is a pleasant custom, if not overdone, to send presents to the bride. They may be sent any time within a month of the wedding. The bride-elect should write a note of thanks to every one who sends a present, before she leaves home. These notes should be written on note paper rather than on cards. It is not necessary to wait for an invitation to a wedding before sending a present, although it is quite customary. All persons who send gifts should be invited to the wedding, but all who are invited are not under obligation to send presents. Wedding presents, like any other, should be free gifts, and until they are, what should be a pleasure will be turned into a burden.

It is not in good form for the groom to furnish any thing for his own wedding but the ring and bouquet for the bride, presents for the bridesmaids and the best man, and some token to the ushers. He also pays the clergyman, or the best man does it for him.

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Table Usages and Etiquette.

"Familiarity with table etiquette can be learned only by the constant practice of courtesies, which are acknowledged to be sensible and beautiful."

Whatever the hour of a dinner or high tea, the guests should take care to be punctual to the minute. After removing wraps, the lady and her escort should descend to the hall, and possibly there the gentleman will find a card with his name and that of the lady whom he is to take in to dinner. If not, he will be informed by the hostess whom he is to take in. In entering the drawing-room the lady should precede the gentleman, and should not take his arm. At a dinner, or any other visit of ceremony, the guests should greet the host and hostess, or those receiving, as soon as possible after entering the room. When dinner (or tea) is announced, the host leads the way with the lady for whom the dinner is especially given, and the hostess follows last with the gentleman whom she wishes to honor. These honored guests sit at the right of host and hostess respectively. The other ladies and gentlemen are arranged so as to separate married couples as far as possible. Sometimes the place of each guest at the table is designated by a card with his or her name written upon it, beside the plate. A gentleman is expected to be attentive to the lady he takes in, who is seated at his right. He is also to be somewhat attentive to the one at his left, and to the one opposite him.

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The table should be laid with the greatest care. After it has been drawn out to its proper length, it should be covered with a cotton flannel table-cloth, and over that there should be a perfectly clean, and perfectly ironed, white table-cloth. The finer the damask the better, but cleanliness is the great essential. The long fold of the cloth down the middle serves as the mathematical center of the table. It adds much to the attractiveness of a table to have a center ornament. This may consist of flowers, or fruit, and should be high or low, according to the prevailing fashion. It also adds much to have laid in regular order at each plate a few flowers tied with ribbon. These flowers may be of one kind, or many. It is, perhaps, more customary to use a variety at lunches, and but one kind, or, at the most, two kinds, at dinner. Fancy dishes filled with bon-bons are also used in ornamenting a table. Every thing should have its exact place upon the table. The knives, the forks, the spoons, the glass, the napkins, salt-cellars, and carafes should be definitely placed so as not to suggest that they have been carelessly thrown on.

When the table is first laid, there should be as many glasses, knives, forks, and spoons as may be needed before the table is cleared for dessert. If a salt-box is not placed at each plate, there should, at least, be enough to accommodate all. If the dinner consists of several courses, the knives, forks, and spoons used are removed after each course. Before the dessert is brought on, everything should be

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cleared from the table, except the cloth. Even with the simplest dinner, it is well to have dishes of meat and vegetables, and the condiments removed. These matters may seem unimportant, but they are not. Every elegant custom observed adds so much to the refinement of our lives.

Spoons, forks, etc., for the dessert should be laid at each plate as they are needed. The small spoon for the after-dinner coffee should be brought with the coffee.

There are a few rules in dining or in eating at any time, which should never be violated. Nothing more plainly shows the well-bred person than his manners at table. He may be well-dressed or may converse well, but if he is unrefined, his manners at table will expose him. There are people who are happy in their manner of eating as in everything else; but if one has not had the advantage of early training, it is safe to study minute points of table etiquette, that he may learn to eat without offending the sensitive taste of the well-bred. If one defies the regulations that society has made relative to table manners, he is classed as decidedly ill-bred or ignorant. A few hints are as follows:

Sit reasonably near the table, neither too near nor too far away.

Never place the elbows on the table.

Do not bend over the plate.

Do not spread the elbows when cutting meat, etc.

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While waiting to be served, the knife, fork, or any table article should be left untouched. The hands should be quietly folded in the lap until one has been served.

The napkin should be spread over the lap when one first sits down at the table. It is considered *outré* to tuck the napkin under the chin.

It is proper to begin eating as soon as served, although there should be no indecorous haste. An exception to this rule is, that no one should begin to eat the dessert until all are served.

The old, or the honored guest should be served first — that is, if they are ladies.

At small dinners, or lunches, or suppers, the hostess is sometimes served first. This is a help to the uninitiated, who can observe the hostess and do likwise.

It is not proper to reach in order to help one's self to anything. If servants are not near, a polite request that the dish be passed should be made of some one at the table. The mouth should not be filled full, and it should be closed when the food is chewed. Smacking the lips, or drawing in the breath when eating soup, drinking coffee, etc., is vulgar, and most offensive to the well-bred.

One should not attempt to eat the last drop of soup, nor the last morsel of food on the plate.

The knife is used in cutting up the food but it should not convey the food to the mouth. The fork should be used for this purpose. There is a proper

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way of holding knife and fork that can be learned best by observing some one who does it properly. The fork should be raised laterally to the mouth, with the right hand; the elbow should never be crooked so as to bring the hand around at a right angle, or the fork directly opposite the mouth.

The fork should not be overloaded. It is said that to pack meat and vegetables upon the fork is a common American vulgarity, originating in the hurried way of eating at railway stations and hotels. It is an unhealthy and an ill-mannered habit. To take but little on the fork at a time, a moderate mouthful, shows good manners and refinement.

The knife must not be put into the mouth. It is considered almost a barbarism.

It is a disputed question what to do with the knife and fork when the plate is passed for a second supply. (This is not done at a formal dinner.) It seems the better plan not to leave them on the plate, as they are liable to fall off, or to be in the way, but to hold them in the right hand or to place them on the table in such a manner as not to soil the cloth. When tea, coffee or other liquid food is taken from a spoon it should be from the side. A writer on table manners says: "The spoon has its Scylla and Charybdis, and if a careless eater makes a hissing sound as he eats his soup, the well-bred eater looks around with dismay."

Tea or coffee should be drunk from the cup and not from the saucer.

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Pears and apples should be peeled with a silver knife, cut into quarters, and then picked up with the fingers.

Grapes should be eaten from behind the half-closed hand, the stones and skins falling into the fingers unobserved, and thence to the plate.

If necessary to eject anything from the mouth while eating, use the fork in conveying it from the mouth to the plate.

Fruit stones may be removed with the fingers and placed upon the plate.

If a plate of food is sent to a person at the table, that person should keep it, unless particularly requested to pass it to some one else. A hostess should not apologize for the failure of any dish. All small preferences for any dish should be kept in the background. Neither host nor hostess should press guests unduly to eat. It is not a delicate compliment.

Guests should not ask for a second supply of soup or fish.

Servants should not be reproved in the presence of guests, even if awkward, or careless.

All unpleasant topics of conversation should be avoided at table. If any guest so far forgets the rules of good breeding as to speak disparagingly of others, the host or hostess should use tact in turning the attention of the party to something else. A gossip is always deemed a nuisance in really polite society, but especially so at table. Conversation relating to sickness should be banished from the table.

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When the dinner is over, the hostess indicates it by rising from the table, and the guests should follow.

At the close of a fashionable dinner or tea, or at a hotel, no one folds his napkin. It should be left at the side of the plate unfolded. After a social tea, or breakfast, the napkin should be folded. The hostess does not fold her napkin until all the guests have done so. Every lady who aspires to elegant housekeeping should remember that she must not allow the same napkin to be put on her table twice. Once used it should be sent to the laundry before it is used again. Especially should a guest have a fresh napkin at every meal.

Napkin rings at ceremonious meals are not used. A tooth-pick should be used only when a person is entirely alone.

In inviting to a dinner, or to any company of limited numbers, the hostess should be careful to select congenial spirits.

At the close of a ceremonious visit of any kind the departing guest should make his adieux to host and hostess or other entertainers before going to the dressing-room to don wraps.

Outdoor Etiquette.

Only a quiet demeanor is allowable on the street

Loud talk and laughter is rude.

Care should be taken to recognize friends and acquaintances on the street.

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A gentleman takes off his hat when he meets gentlemen or ladies whom he knows. It is an inexcusable rudeness not to do so.

In this country, a lady bows first when she meets a gentleman acquaintance on the street.

A bow, when people are near each other, should be accompanied by some polite salutation, and the name should be added, as, "Good morning, Mr. Brown." In bowing, the face should show respect to acquaintances, and cordiality to friends.

If a gentleman is walking, or driving with a lady, he should take off his hat to any lady whom she recognizes.

It is impolite for people to gather in groups on the sidewalk and obstruct the way.

If two people who wish to converse with each other meet, one should turn and walk in the direction in which the other is going.

Well-bred people do not eat fruit, nuts, nor any thing else on the street.

When a lady with whom a gentleman is unacquainted, addresses an enquiry to him on the street, or when he has restored something which she has inadvertently dropped, he should touch his hat ceremoniously and with some phrase, or accent of respect add grace to a civility. The lady should not fail to acknowledge the courtesy.

Should ladies unattended be observed by a gentleman acquaintance when alighting from or entering a carriage, he should at once proffer his assistance;

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or if familiarity and his own wish sanction it, he may accompany them to any place they may be about to enter. In attending them into any shop or store he should always give them precedence, holding the door from without if practicable.

It is rude to turn and look at people after they have passed. It is rude to stare at them if peculiar in dress or manner.

Gentlemen should carefully avoid all semblance of staring at ladies on the street, and should make no comment, even of a complimentary nature, in a voice that can possibly reach their ears.

Gentlemen should show ladies the most punctilious politeness on the street or elsewhere.

Walking with them, gentlemen should, of course, assume the relative position best adapted to protect them from inconveniences or danger. No general rule can be laid down in regard to offering the arm to ladies on the street. Where persons are known, local custom will be the best guide. At night the arm should always be offered. To relatives or elderly ladies it is always a proper courtesy, as it is to every woman, when a gentleman can thus most effectually secure her safety or comfort.

Manners at Church.

Good taste dictates the most quiet and unnoticeable bearing at church. Some one says it is a part of one's religion not to disturb the religion of others. One should enter early enough to be well seated be-

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fore the service begins. If unavoidably late, one should enter quietly between parts of the service. To attend politely, but very unostentatiously, to the little courtesies that may render others comfortable, to avoid all rude staring and every semblance of irreverence, will appeal to all well-bred people as required by decorum. All nodding, whispering and exchanging glances in church are in bad taste. In attending a church of a different denomination from one's own, it is the better way to comply, as far as possible, with all the ceremonies observed, even if some of these observances are not in conformity with our own opinions and feelings. It is unpardonable to show curiosity, or to ridicule ceremonies that may seem peculiar.

In entering a church, a lady precedes a gentleman. When a lady is to take a seat in a pew already partially occupied by gentlemen, it is not now considered necessary that the gentlemen should file out and give her the seat nearest the corner.

Manners in Places of Amusement.

Perhaps nowhere are bad manners so disagreeable as in public places of amusement. These being places to which people are admitted on payment of a fee, it becomes actual dishonesty when they are defrauded of the pleasure they have paid for by the conduct of those about them. A gay group of acquaintances who chat freely and audibly during a sweet strain in

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opera or oratorio, whose smothered laughter obscures the light and shade of the music's loveliest passages, are, for the moment, thieves and robbers. Not that they appreciate the enormity of their ill-breeding; far from it; offenses against taste are always very lightly esteemed by those who commit them; but the amount of distress they cause, the suffering they inflict upon innocent people who wish to listen, to say nothing of the insult they offer to the performers, can hardly be over-stated.—SELECTED.

In going to a place of entertainment it is not polite to performers or audience to arrive late. One should arrive in season, take his seat quietly, and remain quiet and attentive throughout the whole entertainment. If there is any delay before the entertainment begins, the time should not be spent in loud laughing or talking. Nothing should be done to attract attention. Eating candy, nuts, or anything else, at a concert or other public occasion, is ill-bred.

It is the height of ill manners to leave the place before the entertainment is concluded, in order to avoid passing out with the crowd. Loud and continued applause is in bad taste.

In other public places, manners sometimes challenge criticism. All pushing, taking the best places and occupying, in a thronged conveyance, more room than a ticket entitles one to take, are contrary to good manners. Gentlemen should give up their seats to ladies who are standing in a car. This

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polite custom seems to be more and more ignored, but it should not be so. Ladies should not fail to acknowledge this courtesy, nor any other.

Etiquette of Introduction.

In point of precedence in presenting, the younger woman should be presented to the older; a gentleman to a lady. In introducing a professional man, his title should be named. The lady in her own home should always shake hands when a guest is presented. Men should shake hands with each other. At a dinner party, a few minutes before dinner, the hostess should introduce to a lady the gentleman who is to take her in to dinner, but she should make no further introductions, except in the case of a distinguished stranger, to whom all the company are introduced. The room where they meet is a sufficient guarantee that they can converse if they have not been formally introduced.

At a ball the presentations should be distinctly formal. Hand-shaking is not proper. Ball-room introductions are supposed to mean, on the part of the gentleman, either an intention to dance with the young lady, to walk with her, or to talk with her, or to show her some attention.

Introductions which take place out of doors, as on a tennis ground, in the street, or in any casual way, are not to be considered formal unless the lady chooses so to consider them. A lady need not after-

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ward recognize a gentleman if she does not wish to do so. It is, however, more polite to bow.

After a gentleman has been introduced to a lady he must wait for her to bow first before he ventures to claim her as an acqaintance. When two strangers are presented it is well for the one presenting to say something which may break the ice and make the conversation easy, and agreeable; as, for instance, "Mrs. Jones, allow me to present my friend, Mrs. White, of New York." People who are introduced should make some conversation with each other, and not turn rudely away without a word. At any function less than a large ball it is always proper to add a little note of interest to the presentation which leads the way for conversation.

A hostess should take pains to introduce shy people.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Conventional forms of letters aud cards — Letters of friendship, notes of acceptance, etc.

Letter writing as once carried on is becoming a lost art. An almost perfect postal service, cheap postage, telegraph, telephone, type-writer, and various other less direct causes have nearly done away with correspondence in the old sense.

The writing of short letters or notes has correspondingly increased. There is much attention now paid to the paper on which letters are written. A style of paper always considered in good taste for letters of friendship or invitations, etc., is the thick

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white or cream, unruled note-paper, folded square and put into a square envelope. There are three desirable sizes.

Sealing wax is now rarely used.

Colored paper decorated in one corner with flowers, etc., is not desirable.

The plan of having all the note paper marked with the address is an admirable one, as it ensures necessary information concerning the place to which the answer is to be sent, an item often omitted by absent-minded people.

This address should be printed or engraved at the head of the paper in rather small, plain letters, and may be in colors, although plain black is preferable. The ink for writing should invariably be black. Good penmanship is desirable, but what style of penmanship is preferable, is difficult to be decided. Penmanship is said to be characteristic of the writer, therefore a cramped, slovenly handwriting should be avoided.

By custom, a formal letter consists of six parts—the heading, the address, the salutation, the body of the letter, the complimentary ending, the writer's signature.

The heading should give the place and date of writing. It may occupy one, two or three lines, according to the space it requires. It should begin near the top, and about half way across the page toward the right. The whole of the date should be on one line. Except in business letters, it is allowable to omit the heading and write the name of the place

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and the date at the left of the page, lower than the signature. The address of a letter consists of the name and title of the person, or firm, to whom it is written. Sometimes, especially in business letters, the residence or place of business is added. It is polite to use an appropriate title with the name of the person addressed, such as *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Miss*, *Dr.*, *Rev.*, *Hon.*, *Rev. Dr.*, etc. The address may, like the heading, occupy one, two or three lines. It should be lower than the heading, and should begin near the left margin of the paper. In familiar letters the formal address may be omitted. The form of the salutation depends upon who is writing, who is addressed, and what degree of intimacy there is between the two.

It is not necessary to be conventional in the salutation of familiar letters.

No explicit directions can be given for the body of a letter. A business letter should be concisely, clearly and politely expressed In any letter avoid the too frequent use of the pronoun *I*.

None but the most common abbreviations should be used, and no figures except in connection with dates or large sums of money.

Do not use the sign "&" except in the name of a firm.

The complimentary ending is a courteous assurance of good faith, respect or affection which is added to the end of a letter. One should say something in keeping with the style of letter he has written, and

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with his relations to the person addressed; and he should, at the same time, express his feelings truthfully. In business or formal letters the common forms are: *Yours truly*, *Yours respectfully*, *Very truly yours*, etc. In extremely formal letters, "*Your obedient servant*" is sometimes used. For friendly or familiar letters there is a great variety of forms, such as, *Faithfully yours*, *Yours sincerely*, *Ever most gratefully yours*, etc. The signature is to be written distinctly on the line following the complimentary ending. The signature in all formal letters and documents should be the full name, and never a nickname. A lady when writing to a stranger should sign her name so as to show whether she is to be addressed as *Miss* or *Mrs.*

Fold a letter-sheet by turning up the lower edge to meet the upper evenly. Then fold twice the other way,— first the left edge, then the right, making the distance between the folds a little less than the width of the envelope.

If the envelope is nearly square fold the paper once in the middle.

The envelope and the paper should match in size and tint; the superscription should consist of the name and title with the post-office and state, and sometimes the street and number; also sometimes the county, and sometimes the name of the person in whose care the letter is sent. The stamp should be evenly placed, right end up, about an eighth of an inch from the upper right-hand corner.

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A letter of introduction should have written on the lower left hand side of the envelope,— "Introducing Mr. ———." A letter of introduction should not be sealed.

Always enclose a stamp when a reply is asked as a business favor.

The style of letters and cards of invitation differs according to the occasion.

A large dinner, being a formal affair, would require a formal invitation, either engraved or written. If paper is used, the paper referred to for letter-writing would be in good taste. If cards are used, as they vary in style at different times, it would be a safe plan to consult some one who knows what the prevailing style is. The formula of the invitation should be as follows.

Mr. and Mrs. Henry Brown
request the pleasure of
Mr. and Mrs. Jones's company at dinner,
November twelfth, at seven o'clock.
125 *Chase Avenue.*

The reply should be couched in just as formal (or informal) language as is the invitation.

For example:

Mr. and Mrs. James Jones
accept with pleasure the kind invitation of
Mr. and Mrs. Henry Brown, for dinner,
on November fifteenth,
at seven o'clock.

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Invitations to evening or day receptions are generally "At home" cards. A lady may use her own visiting cards for five o'clock tea. For other entertainments, "Music," "Tennis," etc., may be engraved in one corner, or written in by the lady herself. When gentlemen are to entertain they should not invite by "At home" cards, but should "request the pleasure," etc.

Wedding invitations are engraved in small script on note paper. The style can be obtained from a fashionable engraver.

The same rule holds in receptions.

Never write simply "Regrets" on a card.

Either send a visiting card, or write a note, thus: "Mrs. Brown regrets that a previous engagement will deprive her of the pleasure of accepting the kind invitation of Mrs. Jones." No one should economize politeness in accepting or refusing an invitation. It is better to err on the other side.

No form can be given for a letter of condolence written by an intimate friend. If an acquaintance wishes to express sympathy, but does not feel at liberty to write a note of condolence, a visiting card may be sent or left with the word "sympathy" written on it.

Any card should be scrupulously plain.

Titles are rarely used on visiting cards. A gentleman should prefix Mr. to his name, and a married woman Mrs., and an unmarried woman Miss.

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A married woman should have her husband's name engraved on her card (as, Mrs. James Fulton Brown), during his life. A widow does not use her husband's given name. She may have on her cards, Mrs. Mary Brown, or simply, Mrs. Brown.

Should a son bear his father's name, so that there may be two "Mrs. John Browns," and as "old Mrs. Brown, or young Mrs. Brown" may be objectionable, there is no other way than to use the Christian name. Mrs. John Brown, Jr., may be used until the husband ceases to be a junior.

If cards are left or sent preparatory to leaving town, the letters P. P. C. (*pour prendre congé*), or T. T. L. (to take leave), should be written in pencil on one corner

Miscellaneous Suggestions.

"Complimenting is one of the duties of life. No one is exempt from the obligation to pay compliments at the proper time to the proper person. No one can be too humble to be entitled to receive compliments from the highest. No one can be too high, or too great, to receive compliments from the low and little. It is courteous to commend what is commendable. Many find it easy to speak words of blame, but do not seem to think what gratification a word of deserved praise affords. The language of compliment is not that of mere flattery."

Gentlemen should not remain seated when there are ladies, or older people, standing in the room.

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Young people should not occupy the easiest chairs, nor the most comfortable places in a room, when older people are present.

When one is trying to entertain a company by music, or reading, the company should give respectful attention, never annoying the performer by talking, or moving about.

One should give respectful attention to another who is talking to him. It is rude to allow one's eyes to wander, or to give divided attention at such a time, even if what is said is not interesting.

Demonstrations of affection are out of place in company, or anywhere else in public.

Reading to one's self in company is inexcusable. Reading aloud is still worse, unless by special request.

When entering a private house, gentlemen should remove their hats. Any one should remove rubbers. It is allowable for a gentleman to retain his hat and stick, in his hand, if he does not choose to leave them in the hall. On no account should the hat be placed on a chair or table in the parlor. In entering a parlor, host and hostess should be first sought out and spoken to. If the family only be present, the one entering may properly shake hands with all. This is partly a matter of choice, but if it is either a formal, or an informal call, it is highly proper. When the company is large it is unnecessary, The same direction applies in leaving.

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When in company, or when making a call, lounging or rocking should not be indulged in. Sitting with the chair tipped, or with the feet on the rounds, is not allowable. Ladies should not sit with the feet or knees crossed. Gentlemen should not sit with the feet elevated. The feet should remain on the floor, and should be as inconspicious as possible.

Fumbling or fussing with the watch-chain, or with any thing else should be avoided; also drumming with the fingers, or twirling things. When the hands are not necessarily occupied they should be kept quiet. Constant and unnecessary motion of hands or feet gives one an appearance of restlessness which is not at all conducive to elegance of manner.

Passing directly in front of people should be avoided, if possible. It is better, however, to pass in front of others with a "Pardon me," than to crowd behind them.

A gentleman should allow a lady to pass through a door before him, holding it open for her. Gentlemen should go up-stairs before a lady, and behind her coming down.

No definite rule for the making of gifts can be laid down, but it may be stated that the promiscuous gift-making now so prevalent in this country is vulgar. It would seem in good taste to make gifts to special friends only. Gifts should always be acknowledged, but it is indelicate to make an immediate return, as if in payment.

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It is better to buy than to borrow, but if borrowing is unavoidable, the article borrowed should be speedily returned. Under no consideration should the liberty be taken of lending a borrowed article.

If a borrowed book, or other article, is irreparably injured, it is a duty to replace it.

Borrowed articles should be returned by the borrower, or by a servant. It is rude to ask the owner of a borrowed article to take it home.

There are many optional civilities in life which add much to its charms, but which cannot be laid down in a treatise on etiquette. To know what to say, "Pray, be seated," "Do not stand without your hat," "Do not rise, I beg of you," and a thousand other polite phrases, depend upon the thoughtfulness and ready tact of the person who says them.

Dr. Munger has finely said: "Delicacy leads one instantly to see the line beyond which he may not go; to detect the boundary between friendliness and familiarity, between earnestness and heat, between sincerity and intolerance in pressing your convictions, between deference and its excess. It is the critic and mentor of the gentlemanly character. It tells him what is coarse, and unseemly, and rude, and excessive. It warns him away from all doubtful acts and persons. It gives little or no reason — it is too fine for analysis and logical process, but acts like a divine instinct, and is to be heeded as divine. A man may be good without it, but he will lack a name-

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less grace; he will fail of highest respect; he will make blunders that hurt him without knowing why; he will feel a reproach that he cannot understand. It is this quality more than any other that draws the line in all rational society."

Julia M. Dewey.

The author wishes to acknowledge her indebtedness to Messrs. Houghton & Mifflin, Harper & Bros., The Taylor-Austin Co., Dr. T. T. Munger and Henry Altemus, who have courteously allowed her to make the foregoing quotations.

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